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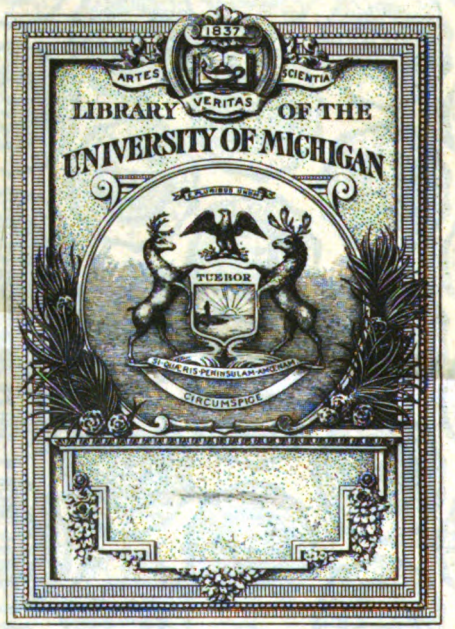

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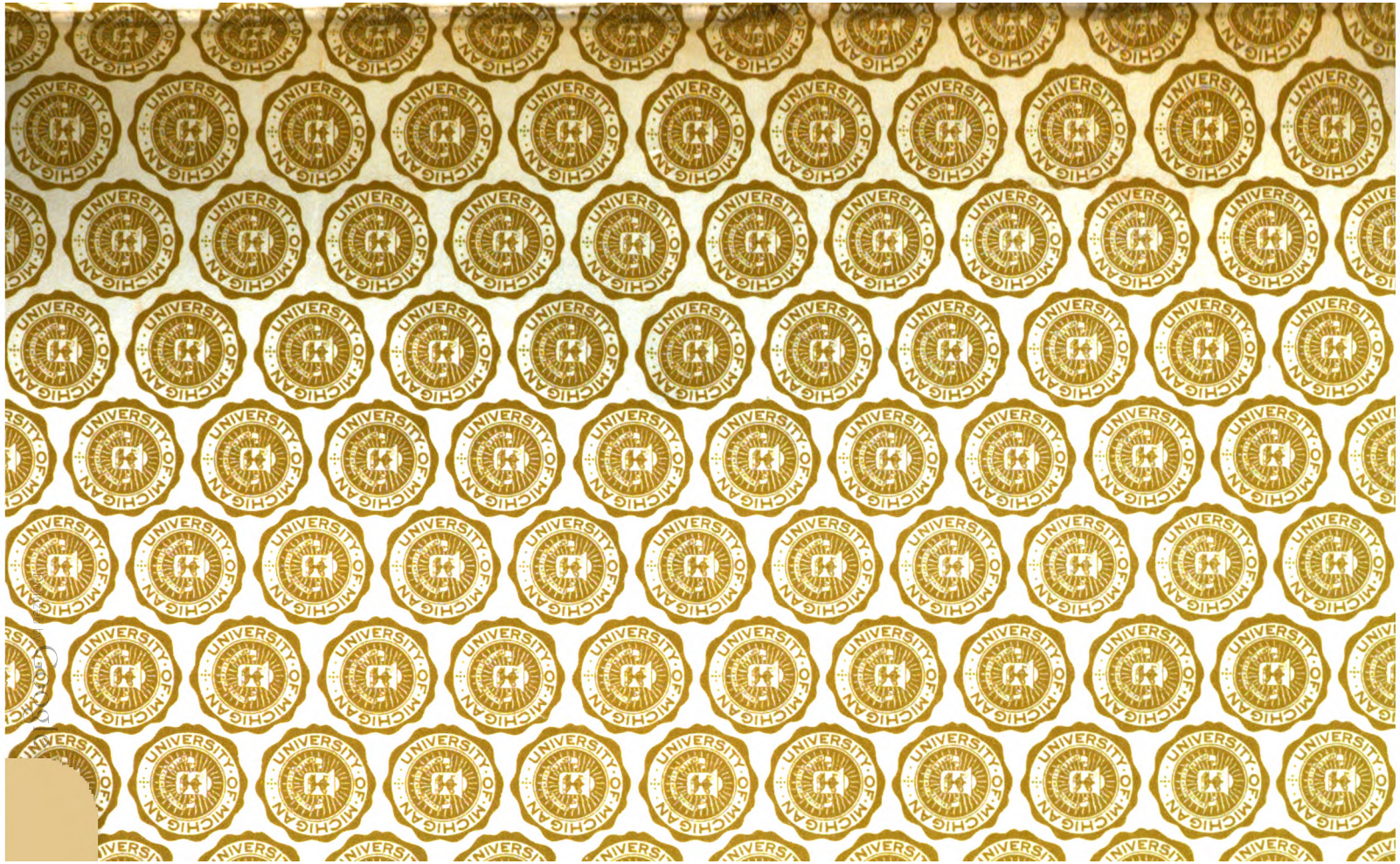
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MARITIME GEOGRAPHY

AND

STATISTICS,

OR

A DESCRIPTION

OF THE

Ocean and its Coasts,

MARITIME COMMERCE, NAVIGATION,

&c. &c. &c.

"Le Trident de Neptune est le Sceptre du Monde."

By JAMES HINGSTON TUCKEY,

A Commander in the Royal Navy.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

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CONTENTS OF VOL. III.

	Page
TERRITORY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE - - -	1
Fish, sea birds - - - - - - - -	4
Animals, climate - - - - - - - -	5
Hottentots - - - - - - - - -	10
Cape Current - - - - - - - -	16
EAST COAST OF AFRICA - - - - - -	21
Natal - - - - - - - - - -	*ib.*
Soffola - - - - - - - - - -	23
Mosambique - - - - - - - - -	25
Querimba - - - - - - - - -	26
Zanguebar - - - - - - - - -	27
Ajan - - - - - - - - - -	29
Samaulies - - - - - - - - -	30
Socotra Island - - - - - - - -	31
Madagascar Island - - - - - - - -	33
Comoro Islands - - - - - - - -	43
Bourbon Island - - - - - - - -	46
Isle of France - - - - - - - -	53
Roderigue Island - - - - - - - -	58
Scattered Islands and Reefs in the Indian Ocean - -	59
THE RED SEA; name, extent - - - - -	67
Gulfs, ancient extent - - - - - -	68
Elevation, tides, winds - - - - - -	69
Fresh water, coast, shoals, fish - - - -	71

Digitized by Google

Page

Birds, climate - - - - - - - 72
African coast - - - - - - - *ib.*
Arabian coast - - - - - - - 75
Islands - - - - - - - - - 80
South Coast of Arabia - - - - - - 83
Gulf of Persia; winds, currents - - - - 88
Springs of fresh water, rivers - - - - - 89
Arabian coast - - - - - - - 90
Persian coast - - - - - - - - 93
Islands - - - - - - - - - 94
South Coast of Persia - - - - - - 97
Historical Essay on the Rise and Progress of the European Establishments in India - - - - - 99
Regions of India - - - - - - - *ib.*
Ancient communication with Europe - - - 100
Progress of the Portuguese - - - - - 104
Progress of the Dutch - - - - - - 114
Progress of the English - - - - - - 119
Progress of the French - - - - - - 127
Progress of the English and French - - - - 131
Trade of the Dutch - - - - - - 136
Settlements of the Spaniards - - - - - 137
——— ——— Danes - - - - - - 140
——— ——— Austrians - - - - - 142
——— ——— Swedes and Prussians - - - 143

Monsoons and Currents in the Indian Seas - - - 144
Hindostan; Scindy - - - - - - 150
Coast of Cutch - - - - - - - 151
Guzerat - - - - - - - - 152
Surat coast - - - - - - - - 155
Bombay coast - - - - - - - 157
Concan - - - - - - - - 160
Canara - - - - - - - - - 164

Digitized by Google

Page

Malabar - - - - - - - - - 168
Madura and Tinevelly - - - - - - - 174
Laccadiva Islands - - - - - - - - 175
Maldiva Islands - - - - - - - - 177
CEYLON - - - - - - - - - - 181
Names, extent, mountains - - - - - - 182
Rivers, minerals - - - - - - - - 183
Vegetables, animals, climate - - - - - 184
Population - - - - - - - - - 185
Topography - - - - - - - - - 188
Pearl fishery - - - - - - - - - 194
HINDOSTAN; coasts of Mariwar and Tondiman - - 199
Tanjore, Coromandel - - - - - - - ib.
Golconda - - - - - - - - - 205
Bengal - - - - - - - - - - 209
Sunderbunds - - - - - - - - - 215
Chittagong - - - - - - - - - 217
INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES; divisions - - - 218
Relations with Europeans - - - - - 219
Aracan - - - - - - - - - - 220
Pegu - - - - - - - - - - 221
Siam - - - - - - - - - - 224
Malay peninsula - - - - - - - - 226
Gulf of Siam - - - - - - - - 236
Cambodia - - - - - - - - - 238
Tsiompa - - - - - - - - - 240
Cochin China - - - - - - - - 241
Tonquin - - - - - - - - - 248
Hainan I. - - - - - - - - - 250
CHINA; topography - - - - - - - 252
Chinese character - - - - - - - 263
THE COREA - - - - - - - - - 268
MANTCHOURIE - - - - - - - - - 269
SIBERIA - - - - - - - - - - - 274
KAMTSCHATKA; soil - - - - - - - 279

Digitized by Google

	Page
Volcanoes, rivers, vegetables, animals, climate	280
Natives	281
Commerce	282
Topography	283
Koriaks and Tchuktches	286
Chinese Islands; Formosa	290
Lieukieu Islands	292
Japan Islands; name, soil	294
Climate, productions, animals	295
Minerals; Japanese	296
Government, manners	297
Topography	301
Jesso, Kuriles	304
Grand Archipelago; divisions	313
Islands in the Bay of Bengal	*ib.*
Malay archipelago, Sumatra	328
Sunda chain	369
Bornean, Celebean, and Molucca chains	385
Philippine archipelago	407
Papua archipelago	419
New Holland	433
Progress of geography	*ib.*
New South Wales; coast, mountains	434
Rivers, climate	*ib.*
Productions, vegetable and animal	435
Natives	436
Colony of Port Jackson	440
General topography, East coast	444
South coast	447
Nuyt's Land	449
Leeuwin's Land, Edel's Land	451
Concord Land	*ib.*
Dewitt's Land	452

Digitized by Google

Page

Arnheim Land - - - - - - - - 453
Gulf of Carpentaria - - - - - - - *ib.*
VAN DIEMEN'S LAND - - - - - - - 455
OF THE COMMERCE OF THE INDIAN SEAS - - - 459
East India Company's Charter - - - - *ib.*
East coast of Africa - - - - - - - 460
Red Sea - - - - - - - - - 462
Persian Gulf - - - - - - - - - 467
Pearl Fishery - - - - - - - - 471
South Coast of Persia, Scindy, Guzerat - - - 472
Surat; Malabar Coast - - - - - - - 473
Ceylon and Coromandel - - - - - - - 480
Bengal - - - - - - - - - 486
East Coast of the Bay of Bengal - - - - 490
Malay Islands - - - - - - - - *ib.*
Siam and Cochin China - - - - - - - 498
China - - - - - - - - - - 501
Japan - - - - - - - - - - 510

ISLES OF SANTA CRUZ - - - - - - - 517
NEW HEBRIDES - - - - - - - - 518
NEW CALEDONIA - - - - - - - - 521
NEW ZEALAND - - - - - - - - - 524

NOTES - - - - - - - - - - 533
Monies, Weights and Measures - - - - - - 543
Geographical Positions - - - - - - - 548
Index - - - - - - - - - - 554

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MARITIME GEOGRAPHY.

THE TERRITORY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THE territory of the Cape of Good Hope occupies the southern extremity of Africa, extending from the latitude 29° 48′ on the west coast, to the great Fish river in 33° 25′ on the east. The Dutch first formed an establishment here in 1653, to serve as an intermediate station for their East India fleets.*

In *following the coast* from the north, we meet in succession Green river, Zwart Dorn (Black Thorn) river in 30° 36′, and Elephant river 31° 28′, which latter is crossed by a bar at its mouth, but has water within for small craft twenty miles.

St. Helena bay is limited by St. Martin's point on the west, and Cape Deseada on the N.E. It is five leagues deep, with regular depths from twelve to five fathoms; but is entirely exposed to

* The Dutch found their claim on a pretended purchase from the Hottentots of the peninsula. If, however, the ceremony of taking a nominal possession gives a legal claim to an unoccupied country, England has this claim to the Cape, for in May 1620 Andrew Shilling and Humphry Fitzherbert took possession of the peninsula for their sovereign Queen Elizabeth.

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the N.W. and is only occasionally visited by the southern whalers in the summer. Berg, or Mountain river, empties itself into it, and though crossed by a bar has water within it for small vessels. On each side of the river are a few houses, this being formerly a Dutch post to collect grain.

Saldahna Bay runs in east and S.E. forming a port capable of holding the largest fleets, but unfortunately there is no fresh water near its shores in summer. In winter the brackish water in the ponds is rendered fresh by the rains. The spring most contiguous and convenient is six miles distant from the north shore of the bay, at a spot called Whit Clif (White Rock.) The entrance is between the islands of Jutten and Malgasen; after passing this narrow strait the entrance widens, and in the middle is the island St. Marcus with a safe passage on either side. Provisions are abundant here and cheaper than at the Cape Town, but there is no wood for fuel near the shores. In the bay are several rocky islets frequented by seals, which are taken by people from the Cape for their oil and skins.

Dassen, also called Elizabeth and Marmotte island, is between Saldahna and Table Bays: it is four or five miles off shore, low and sandy, the resort of innumerable penguins, and abounds in the Guinea rat (*Cavia Capensis*) called Dassen, or badger, by the Dutch boors.*

The

* In English charts this island is called Coney or Rabbit island, which as well as Dassen and Marmotte, are referable *improperly* to the Guinea rat, called vulgarly the Guinea pig.

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The southern promontory of Africa is a vast peninsular mass of rocky mountains, joined to the main by a sandy isthmus. At the north extremity of the peninsula the mountains are named, from their configuration, the Table, 3,500 feet high, the Tiger or Devil's Hill, nearly as high and separated from the Table by a gap, the Sugar Loaf or Lion's Head, 2,100 feet, and the Lion's Rump. Towards the south the land declines gradually till it ends in three hummocks at the Cape of Good Hope point.

Table Bay is on the west side of the isthmus, and is entirely open to the N.W., hence it is extremely dangerous in the winter months, when the N.W. winds blow with such violence that no ship can ride them out; for should even the cable hold her, the sea is so furious that she would founder at her anchors. No vessel is therefore permitted to enter the Bay or remain in it between the 10th of May and the 15th of August. During the rest of the year it is a safe road, but by no means a convenient one, for the S.E. winds which then prevail, often blow with such violence as to prevent all communication with the shore.

An island, named Robben (Seal) or Penguin Island, formerly existed in Table Bay, five miles from Green point, which sunk in an earthquake the 7th December 1809. It was about two miles and a half long, low and level except on the south, where was a hillock ninety feet high; the soil was a barren sand, naturally producing only briars and serpolet, but by industry brought to afford

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grapes and kitchen vegetables. It had several good springs, was frequented by penguins to make it their breeding place, and numbers of quails also bred on it and were not allowed to be molested. Latterly, this island was a depot for convicts from the Cape, whose number was generally seventy to 100, and who were employed in quarrying limestone of which the base of the island was composed. The chief officers of the government had the privilege of pasturing sheep on the island.

The bays of the Cape of Good Hope abound in fish, both of the species met in our seas and others. Among the former are mackarel and horse-mackarel, gurnard, sole, skait, maid, shark and dog fish; the Roman fish, a species of *perca*, is named from being taken near the Roman rocks in Simon's Bay, and is one of the commonest fish brought to table; the Hottentot fish is turbot shaped, with silver scales; the springer is also a flat and very luscious fish, whence it is in great request among the Dutch. The torpedo is also found here, and the bagre, a poisonous fish. The dolphin of seamen, and the bonita, sometimes wander thus far from their habitual region. Oysters, cray-fish, shrimps and small crabs, and muscles are plentiful.

Oceanic birds are in vast numbers at the Cape; amongst them are the albatross, the pintado and several other species of petrel, divers, gulls, cormorants, &c. besides the southern penguin, which gives its name to many of the rocks, as does the seal.

The

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The wild animals on the peninsula are, small antelopes, hares, hyenas, wolves, jackals, baboons, and monkeys, besides the land tortoise. The feathered game are, partridges, pheasants, quails, snipes, wild ducks, a kind of grouse, wild pigeons, and doves: a few species of snakes are met with.

The seasons at the Cape are divided into dry and wet; the latter from September to March: the spring is from September to December. The greatest heat in January and February, when the thermometer sometimes rises to 100; June, July, and August, or the winter, are stormy, with torrents of rain, and heavy thunder and lightning, the thermometer in this season falls to forty degrees.

Cape Town is on the S.E. angle of the bay, at the foot of the Table Mountain, which leaves a little plain between it and the sea. From the centre of the town the Table bears south, the Devil *Mountain* S.E. and the Lion's Head S.W. From the Devil's Mountain to the S.E. point of the bay a sandy plain lines the shore.

The landing is at a jetty run out into eight feet water, on which are four large cranes, for discharging boats, &c. The water for ships is conducted to the jetty by pipes and the casks filled in the boats.

Cape Town is built with great regularity and neatness. The streets are straight and wide but unpaved, hence in wet weather they are excessively dirty, and in the S.E. winds clouds of dust are continually afloat in the atmosphere, and render walking extremely disagreeable. The middle of

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the principal streets are occupied by canals, which receive all the water that descends from the Table Hill, and which, as it is in too small a quantity to afford a continual running stream, is kept in by sluices, until the canal is full, or until it becomes putrid, which it very soon does, all the filth of the houses being emptied into the canals. In the centre of the town is a small square, which serves as a vegetable market, and in which is the town-house, a heavy building. The other public edifices are, a Calvinist and Lutheran church, the government house, and a theatre, built by the English.

The fortifications consist of several detached works, of which the principal is the citadel or castle, a regular pentagon flanked with two ravelins, and some other outworks, and surrounded by a wet ditch; it commands the town and a part of the anchorage, but is itself commanded by the Devil Mountain, which rises behind it, and which has been strongly fortified by redoubts and bastions. To the east of the castle is Fort Knocke, a rampart extending between them, called the Marine Lines, on which a number of heavy guns are mounted. N.W. of the town are three strong batteries directly commanding the anchorage, and several other small batteries defend the different points, where a landing may be effected. The barracks are capable of holding 4,000 men. The population of Cape Town, exclusive of military, is about 3,000 whites and 12,000 slaves.

At one extremity of the town is a public garden,

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garden, of between thirty and forty acres, which has been highly improved since the occupation by the English. In it is a menagerie, with some rare birds and beasts of Africa. A library of 5 or 6,000 volumes, and a cabinet of natural history, are the other public institutions.

The climate of the Cape approaches to that of the Torrid Zone: the greatest cold in July and August, only producing light snow on the summits of the mountains, and it is never sufficient to render fires even comfortable. The Table Mountain presents an occasional phenomenon, to which the English have given the name of the Table Cloth, and the French of the Peruque. It commences by a little white cloud, which remains some time stationary over the peak of the Lion's Rump, then gradually increases until it covers the whole Table, when it becomes a dark grey *in the middle*, while the edges still remain white; after continuing some time, it slowly mixes with the atmosphere, until it entirely disappears without rain or mist. This phenomenon is a certain prognostic of a hard gale from the S.E.

The fruits of Europe, as well as of the tropics, are cultivated at the Cape; but neither, grapes excepted, arrive at the same perfection as in their native climates. Beef and mutton are cheap; but the former is far from good, and the latter has a strong taste, from the aromatic herbs the sheep chiefly feed on. These animals are of the African race,

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having hair instead of wool, and tails of a tallowish fat, weighing six to nine pounds.

The country houses in the environs of the Cape are generally plain comfortable habitations. The only trees, either ornamental or useful, are a few oaks and some plantations of the whitter boom, (silver tree), the parching S.E. winds preventing the growth of timber.

The wine made in the colony is principally consumed within it, one-eighth only being exported under the name of Cape Madeira. The celebrated Constantia wine is the produce of two vineyards only on the peninsula, which afford about sixty pipes of red and ninety of white. The pipe of best Cape Madeira is sold for sixty to seventy rix-dollars.

The principal medium of exchange at the Cape is paper, issued by the government in notes of from one to sixty rix-dollars. The common current specie is Spanish dollars, and French six livres pieces, which vary in value with repect to paper money, from twelve to fourteen escalins; the escalin being about six-pence sterling, and eight escalins make a paper rix-dollar. The only gold coin seen in circulation is the quadruple of Spain, which varies from twenty-five to thirty rix-dollars paper.

Most of the Dutch houses receive the passengers from ships as boarders; but the luxury and extravagance of the English have successively raised the price from one rix-dollar a day, which was the usual

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usual demand fifty years ago, to two Spanish dollars, or three hundred per cent. advance; and for this sum the boarder is obliged to content himself with Cape wines.

The exports from the Cape, between 1799 and 1802, were estimated at the annual average of only £15,000, while the imports were £300,000. The objects exported were—

Wine (Cape Madeira), from 4 to 7,000 pipes, at 40 to 60 rix-dollars.

Wine (Constantia), 25 pipes, at 500 to 600 rix-dollars.

Brandy, from 200 to 600 pipes, at 80 to 160 rix-dollars.

Hides, dry and salted, from 2,000 to 3,000.

Wool, a trifling quantity.

Whale and seal oil, and whale-bone, ditto.*

Ostrich feathers, for about 1,000 rix-dollars.

Dried fruits, *viz.* apples, pears, peaches, apricots, raisins, and almonds, for 25,000 rix-dollars.

Butter supplied to ships for sea store.

Aloes, from 50 to 100,000 lbs. at 3*d.* per lb.

Ivory about 1,000 lbs. at one rix-dollar the pound.

Besides these objects, the Cape may export salt provisions and tobacco. The wool and hides may be increased to any extent, but the ostrich feathers and ivory must diminish; for, with respect to former, the Dutch peasants continually robbing their nests to sell the eggs to the shipping, have greatly

* Whales frequently enter Table and False Bays, and are taken; and seals are extremely abundant on the rocky islands.

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greatly thined them, and elephants have also become very scarce in the territory of the Cape.* In 1803, the revenues of the Cape did not exceed £100,000, and the expenses were between 3 and £400,000.

The white population of the colony is estimated at 20,000 souls, of whom 12,000 inhabit the peninsula. The Hottentots are reduced to a few free wandering hordes; and to those whom the Dutch have reduced to slavery, the number in each state is not reckoned above 4,000. The slaves of Africa, India, and the Malay Islands, are estimated at between 30 and 40,000.

The Southern extremity of Africa, or Territory of the Cape, is inhabited by the Hottentots, who appear to be the ab-origines of this region, and who differ entirely from all the other races of Africans, both in physical and moral qualities. In the former respect, they constitute a remarkable exception from the general character of the negro variety of the human race, for though they have the woolly hair of the latter, the form of their skull is that of the Malay, while the want of beard and the colour of the skin approximate them to the Mongol variety. In moral qualities, the Hottentot differs still more remarkably from the negro, being neither ferocious, stubborn, nor selfish, but on the contrary, docile, mild, honest, and never known to tell a falsehood. The faults of which they

* Under the Dutch administration, the Cape exported from 1,400 to 1,600 tons of wheat a year to Ceylon and Batavia.

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they are accused, are an inveterate indolence and gluttony, devouring every kind of animal garbage that falls in their way, without preparation, and when thus gorged, they throw themselves down and sleep off the effects. That they are, however, capable of improvement, is evident, from the conduct of those formed into an armed corps by the English, and who not only shewed a sufficient degree of energy, but also grew cleanly in their persons.

As we have above noticed the skull of the Hottentot resembles that of the Malay, particularly in the flatness of the face and prominence of the cheek-bones; the gristle of the nose being broken in infancy, this part is flat. The natural colour of the skin is a dirty yellow, resembling that of Europeans afflicted with the jaundice: their eyes are a dull black, without expression; their heads thinly furnished with little tufts of wool of a soot colour, and they have no beards. The women are remarkable for the great prominence of their bosoms and posteriors, which give them the shape of an S, and to attain this shape completely, is considered the height of beauty. The other natural appendage which distinguishes the Hottentot females has been described by most travellers in southern Africa.

The want of cleanliness in the Hottentots has became proverbial. They smear their whole bodies with a mixture of grease and soot, and occasionally with cow-dung, which they never wash off. Except this kind of *coating*, they are very thinly clad, the dress of the men consisting of a jackal's skin

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skin before and another behind, which are very imperfect *modesty pieces*; besides these, they wear when the weather requires it, a sheep skin thrown over the shoulders, named a *kross*. The women are but little more particular with respect to the *decency* of their clothing, which consists of three aprons of well greased skins, the outermost about a foot broad, and descending mid-thigh, this seems to be a *dress-habit*, being ornamented with shells and beads, and put off in the hut; the middle apron is only half the size of the outer; and the inner one not above the size of the hand. Both sexes wear, as ornaments, dried guts or leather thongs, round their necks, wrists, and ancles, as well as bracelets of iron and copper.

The habitation of the Hottentot is not much more sumptuous than his dress, consisting of a hut of the branches of trees, resembling a beehive, with a hole to creep in on all fours, and the fire-place in the centre, round which the family sleep, *pell-mell*, while during the day they stretch themselves on the ground outside of them, and bask in the sun. A collection of these huts, formed in a circle, constitute a village or *krael*.

The offensive weapons are the hassagay or spear headed with iron, which they throw with great certainty, huge clubs, bows and arrows, small darts and lances: the points of these weapons are sometimes poisoned with the juice of certain plants or the venom extracted from the heads of snakes.

The language of the Hottentots is a medley of strange and harsh sounds, more resembling the chat-

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chattering of magpies, the noise of angry turkies, and the hooting of owls combined, than the human voice; hence it is very difficult to be understood, and still more so to be spoken. The chief amusement is dancing to the music of several wind and stringed instruments of their own invention, played upon generally by the women, while the men are the dancers.

The Hottentots do not appear to have any religion, unless the belief in magic can be counted such; as in most savage tribes, their conjurors are also their physicians. A few of them have been instructed in the principles of Christianity by Moravian and other missionaries.

On the west coast of the peninsula of the Cape are several bays, most of them entirely open, and never entered by vessels of any description. The first is Three Anchor Bay, near Green Point, on which is a battery to defend a landing place. Society-house Bay (Camp Bay) which bounds the valley between the Table and Lion Mountains; it has a landing place defended by some small works. Hout or Woody Bay, near the middle of the peninsula, is surrounded by the land from east to west by the north, and affords safe anchorage for a few ships; in the winter it receives a considerable stream from the Table. The communication with Cape Town by land is, however, so difficult, that the bay is seldom visited. On it are some military works. Eight leagues distant from the bay is a bank with from sixty to eighty fathoms, which in

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in foggy weather may be mistaken for that of Lagullas, and produce dangerous consequences. Chapman Bay is only two miles and a half distant from Hout Bay, with which it communicates by a narrow defile.

False Bay, so named from having formerly been often mistaken for Table Bay, is on the south side of the isthmus, which separates it from the latter. The Cape of Good Hope Point is its S.W. limit, and False Cape its S.E., distant from each other five leagues. Within False Cape, three or four leagues, is Hanglip and Hottentot's Point of the Dutch; the former name from the upper part projecting out with an inclination downwards. The bay runs in five leagues and a half, and has several dangers on the west shore, *viz.* the Bellows, a large rock even with the water, three miles S.S.W. from the Cape Point; the Anvil and Colebrook, sunken rocks; the Whittle or Trident Rock with twelve feet, eight miles N.N.E. from the Cape point, on which is twelve feet. The middle and eastern parts of the bay are free from known dangers, but the bottom is rocky and unfit to anchor on. The only good anchorage in False Bay is in the cove on the west shore, named Simon's or Seaman's Bay, ten miles north of the Cape Point, and here the vessels that are obliged to stop at the Cape in the winter put in. It is capable of holding fifteen sail of ships perfectly sheltered, but forty or fifty may lay here without danger.

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danger. Opposite the south point of the bay is a large flat rock, called Noah's Ark, and directly off the bay is a group of rocks called the Roman Rocks. The isthmus which separates False and Table Bays is ten miles broad, and is loose sea sand in hillocks, evidently formerly covered by the sea, and on one part of it is a shallow lagoon of salt water, frequented by flocks of wild ducks, flamingos, and other birds. Simon's Town, consisting of about thirty houses, magazines, &c. is supplied with provisions from Cape Town, and water is abundant and easily procured. Seal Island, near the head of False Bay, is surrounded by rocks.

From False Cape the coast lays east 20° south (true bearing), thirty leagues to Cape Lagullas *, the southern point of Africa, being in 34° 58½′ south. The coast between is very mountainous, and one of the hills, called the Gunner's Quoin, is solitary near the sea, and may be seen nine or ten leagues. In the direction of this cape, Klein, or Little River, empties itself. Cape Lagullas slopes gradually to leeward, and terminates in two low points. From the Cape of Good Hope the south coast of Africa is lined by a bank of soundings, as far as Algoa Bay, called the Cape, or Lagullas Bank. Its southern extremity is in about 37½° and longitude 22°. From this point it

* Called by the Portuguese discoverers *Agulhas*, or Needle's Cape, because at that time the magnetic needle had no variation here.

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it converges towards the shore in its progress eastward, till it terminates towards the Keiskamma River, beyond which there are no soundings close to the shore. The being on this bank is denoted by the appearance of grampusses, seals, and gannets.

The current which sets round the Cape of Good Hope, along the edge of the Lagullas Bank, merits a more particular description than we were able to afford it in the general notice of currents. This current, though generally constant, is sometimes obstructed by strong gales from the west and S.W., which, when they are of long continuance, entirely repress it, but the moment they subside it returns with increased velocity. At other times it runs against the most violent gales, producing a very high sea outside the edge of the bank, for within it, near the land, the current is always weak, and the sea comparatively smooth.

This current is usually first experienced coming from the eastward, in about longitude 28°, from whence it follows the direction of the edge of the bank, increasing in velocity towards the southern pitch, where it runs at times at the rate of 160 miles in twenty-four hours: here it changes its direction from S.W. to N.W., setting round the pitch directly towards the Cape of Good Hope, but only with half the velocity it possessed when running to the S.W. Outside of this current a counter, or easterly current, is sometimes found setting with considerable force.

From

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From Cape Lagullas to Cape Infanta the coast is low, and in some places sandy near the shore: the distance is eighteen leagues. The bays on this coast, from Cape Lagullas, are generally open to the east and S.E., and seldom visited, except by small vessels from the Cape for timber. The first is Struy's Bay, east of Cape Lagullas. St. Sebastian Bay, on the north side of Cape Infanta (which is of middling height, with sand downs behind it, and of an arid appearance), receives Brede, or Wide River, whose mouth is a mile in breadth, but is crossed by a bar of sand, within which boats can ascend it thirty miles.

From Cape Infanta to Cape Vacas, Vaches or *Cow*, a distance of thirty leagues, the coast is high and has an uniform appearance. Flesh Bay, of the old Dutch charts, N.E. of Cape Vacas, is little known, and is indeed probably the same as *Mossel* Bay and bay of St. Blaize and St. Bras (south point Cape St. Blaize); though open to the east, affords good anchorage and tolerable shelter, even with the wind from S.E., but with this wind landing is always difficult and often impossible. Four brackish rivers fall into the bay, and have sandy banks at their mouths. Opposite the southernmost, called Great Brak (Great Brackish) River, is Robben (Seal) Island, half a mile off shore. Gouritz, or Gourie River, six miles east of Cape St. Blaize, though nearly dry in summer, in winter has a considerable volume and rapidity. The bay abounds in muscles, oysters, and other shell fish. On the shore is only brushwood, but

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up the Great Brak River is plenty of large timber. On the north side of the promontory of St. Blaize, and one mile west of it, there is a magazine for corn, near a little rivulet, which is a convenient watering-place; and S.E. of the rivulet is a little cove, well sheltered for vessels of ten to twelve feet. Half a mile distant from Cape St. Blaize point is a reef of breakers, with a narrow channel with five fathoms, between them.

From Mossel Bay to Cape Delgado the shore is bold, and the coast moderately high, with mountains inland. Knysna, eight or nine leagues west of Cape Delgado, is an inlet of the sea, capable of being made an excellent harbour for vessels of 500 tons. Its entrance is but a quarter of a mile broad, between the shores of the main, and is rendered still narrower by islands on each side. In mid-channel the depth, at low water, is three fathoms, and the rise of tide eight feet: when through the entrance the depth increases to four and five fathoms, and there is sufficient room for forty or fifty sail. It runs in about five miles, and terminates in a river, whose banks are cloathed with timber trees. The inlet is also well supplied with fresh water, and has some level and fertile islands in it. This inlet seems to be the St. Catharine and Fish Bay of the old charts, situated under Cape Talhado.

Plettemberg Bay, the *Mussel Bay* of the old Dutch, and *Formosa* (beautiful) of the Portuguese charts. It is exposed from E.S.E. to S.S.W., but S.E. winds are of short duration. The bay is formed

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formed by the long promontory, named Cape Delgado or Robbenberg Point (Seal and Seal Hill), which is its southern limit, and off which is a reef of breakers called the Whale, with a channel near a cable's length wide, with nine fathoms between it and the cape point. Several brackish rivers fall into the north side of the bay: that of Keir-boom is crossed by banks that prevent the entrance of a boat, but within it is navigable a considerable distance. Three miles N.W. of Seal Cape are corn magazines near a small fresh water rivulet, whose mouth is generally closed by a dry sand; hence watering is difficult, and the great surf generally renders landing inconvenient. Wood may also be cut near this rivulet; and beef, poultry and fish are abundant.

St. Francis Bay, of the Portuguese Kromme (crooked) River Bay, and Camtons, or Content Bay, of the Dutch, is a less eligible place for a ship than Mussell or Plettemberg Bay. Its S.W. limit is Point Ekeberg, Mountain Cape, Dos Serras of the Portuguese; behind which is a track of broken high land, called the Craggy Mountains. Kromme River empties itself a little east of the cape; it is crossed by a bar with seven or eight feet high water springs, but on which there is generally so great a surf as to prevent boats entering it. The water is besides brackish, but there is a spring about a mile up on the left bank. Camtons, or the Great River, is also crossed by a bar fordable at all times, and entirely dry in the summer;

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within which the river forms a large bason, with depth for a ship of the line.

Algoa Bay of the Portuguese, Zwart-kop Bay of the Dutch (black head), is a tolerable place for procuring water and provisions, though there is generally a considerable surf on the beach. Cape Recif (rocky cape) of the French, or Foul Point, the S.W. limit of the bay, is low, with a conical hill near the extremity, and breakers one mile and a half off. This bay, like those already noticed, has several brackish rivers, the principal of which are Zwartkop and Sunday, both crossed by bars, but at times accessible to boats, and with deep water within. The two small islands of St. Croix are four miles east of Sunday River; and there is another island before the river's mouth. There is a small pallisaded fort four miles north of Foul Point, and at the mouth of a rivulet, named Bakers or Baaken (beacon), whose mouth is usually closed by a dry bar, but just within it is a spring of good water. Whales frequent this bay, as well as that of Plettemberg, in July and August.

From Algoa Bay to that of Delagoa there is no road fit for large vessels. The coast to the Great Fish River is composed of moving sand-hills: its direction is E.N.E. (true bearing).* In this extent is Chaos or Bird Island, two leagues off shore, low

* In all the old charts this part of the coast is laid down too far to the north, which error has caused the loss of several East-Indiamen.

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low and surrounded by rocks. The Great Fish River of the Dutch, Rio Infanta of the Portuguese, separates the territory of the Cape of Good Hope from the Kaffer country. It empties itself into the sea with great rapidity over a bar, on which is a violent surf.

Various portions of the east coast of Africa to the equator have received particular denominations, but their respective limits being undetermined, we shall reduce them to those of Caffraria, Natal, Soffala, Mosambique, Querimba and Zanguebar. The Little Keiskamma River (St. Christopher of the Portuguese) is in the Kaffer country. The coast of Natal received its name from being discovered by the Portuguese on Christmas Day. In general it is elevated, barren, without harbours, and inhabited by a race of Negroes inimical to strangers; hence it is seldom visited by European ships, though the descriptive names of points on it denote its having been formerly frequented by the Portuguese. To the first point of Natal, which is known by three small hills over it, succeeded in succession the rivers St. John, St. Christian, Ants, and Bloody, of which we know no more than the geographical sites which will be found in the tables.

Coast of Natal.

The Port and River of Natal is four leagues east of the third or last point of Natal. The river is crossed by a bar, on which is usually a surf, but can be entered at times by small vessels, the depth

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Coast of Natal. being five feet at low water, and from ten to twelve feet at high water: within the bar the depth at low water is two to five fathoms. The banks are low, and overflowed at high tides, particularly about the equinox in September. The river abounds in hippopotami.

Nine or ten leagues north of Natal is Fisher's River; and ten leagues farther the River St. Lucia, to which succeeds the River of Golden Downs (Rio de Madaon de Ouro) eleven or twelve leagues south of Smoky Cape (Punta dos Fumos), on that part of the coast called Terra dos Fumos by the first Portuguese, from the number of smokes observed on it.

Delagoa Bay, or the Bay of *Espiritu Sancto* and of *Lorenzo Marquez*, its first discoverer, is ten leagues in extent north and south, and seven leagues east and west. The north limit is a peninsula, of which the extreme point is named Inyacke or Unhacca; and on the peninsula is a high hill, called Mount Calato. Separated from the point by a narrow rocky channel is the Island St. Mary; and N.W. of this the little Elephant Island, from which a reef runs five miles to the N.W.; there are besides several other islands in the bay.

Several rivers fall into the bay, and form shifting mud banks. The principal are Lorenzo Marquez, Delagoa, or English River, which falls into the S.W. part of the bay. It is four miles wide at its mouth, but is crossed by a bar, with two and a half and three fathoms at low water, and four at high. It is navigable for vessels of eleven feet

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feet, forty miles, and for large boats several hundred. Mafumo, or Espiritu Sancto River, is on the north, within the island Shefean; and Mapoota, on the south. A great number of whales visit this bay in June to cub, and leave it in September with their young. The Dutch and Imperialists made some unsuccessful attempts to form establishments on this bay. The Portuguese have still a factor here, and trade with the natives for elephants's teeth and gold dust. Fresh provisions, fish, and fruits, are abundant. Coast of Natali.

The coast from Delagoa Bay to Cape Corientes, a distance of sixty-eight leagues, is little known. The rivers Lagoa and Inhampura empty themselves on it: the latter by two branches, at considerable distances from each other, the northern being called Gold River. Cape Corientes (current), is so named from the velocity of the currents setting round it to the south; it is composed of white cliffs higher than the land, to the north and south. The coast from hence to Cape St. Sebastian has generally a barren appearance, but is intersected by several rivers, all blocked up by sand-banks. Inhambane Bay and River is five leagues north of Cape Corientes: there is a narrow channel into the river with six fathoms. The Portuguese have an establishment on the east bank, eight miles from the mouth, where they trade for slaves and ivory. The rivers St. Marcia, French, and Thieves River, succeed to Inhambane. Sofala.

Cape St. Sebastian, the south point of the

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Coast of Soffala. great Gulf of Soffala, is composed of high white cliffs; the coast is here steep, there being no soundings within three miles of the cape. From hence to Luabo River, the coast is low and woody.

Bazaruto Island is a high rock, ten leagues north of Cape St. Sebastian, and off its south side are two rocky islets, called the Bocicas, which afford wood and water. From opposite these islands, the paracel or bank of Soffala lines the coast, to the first of the Angoxa islands. The soundings on it are regular, and it has no danger; the land is generally in sight in twenty fathoms. Chulawan, or Holy Island, is near the shore, four or five miles long, low and woody.

Soffala River is crossed by a bar, with twelve to fourteen feet low water, and in its mouth is the island Inhanceto, separated from the south shore by a boat channel. The Portuguese have a fort on a point of land insulated at high water, and trade here for slaves, ivory, and some gold, which are taken off by an annual vessel from Mosambique. South of the river are several dangerous shoals a considerable way off shore.

Luabo River, the south branch of the great Cuamo, *Zambese* of the natives, is about thirty leagues north of Soffala. The coast between is low and sandy with some small rivers. Between Luabo and Quillimany river, the main branch of the Cuamo, the coast is more elevated. The Cuamo has a course of 180 leagues. The Quillimany branch is half a league wide at the entrance, but

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but is crossed by a bar with two fathoms and a half, on which is sometimes a great swell; the depth within is seven to four fathoms. Four or five leagues above the bar a rivulet of good water empties itself on the north bank, above which is the first Portuguese factory. Sena, the chief establishment, is, from the windings of the river, sixty leagues from the sea. The Portuguese receive a great deal of gold from the interior, elephants' teeth, rhinoceros' horns, wax, hides, &c. from this settlement, for which they give European and Indian goods in exchange. Coast of Sofala.

Quezungo river is thirty-two leagues north of Quillimany; off it is the isle of Fire (Fogo), so named from a light-house formerly on it; it is the southern of the chain called Ilheos Primeros, or First Islands (of Angoxo), which form a chain four leagues from the main, with a good channel within it. The four Angoxo islands lay three leagues from the main: the principal is named Mafamale, from which the Mocambo River is twenty-six leagues N.E.; it can be entered and sailed up two or three leagues with the tide, by vessels of considerable size. Three leagues farther is Mosambique, the principal settlement of the Portuguese on the east coast of Africa, on an island, which with several others forms the best harbour on this coast, the depth being four fathoms and a half at low water. The country round is low, with groves of cocoa-nut trees. Fresh water is scarce, there being but two wells not brackish, one on the island and the other on the Coast of Mozambique.

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Coast of Mozambique.

the main; provisions are also dear, the settlement chiefly depending on Madagascar. Ten thousand slaves are annually exported from hence to Portuguese America, besides ivory, gold dust, columbo root, Ambergris, amber, and cowries. A considerable contraband trade is also carried on here by the English, though foreigners are prohibited trading. The town is well fortified, and as usual in Portuguese colonies has a great number of churches and convents.

From Mosambique the coast is generally low. In succession are the rivers Quisi-Majugo, Fernando Veloso, said to be large and deep, Pinda, Tappamandy, before which are the Bassas de Pinda, a dangerous breaking reef. Between Pinda and Sinnacapa river (eighteen leagues) a ridge of hills extends along the coast, which near the latter are remarkable by their craggy summits, the highest elevation being named Pico Pagos, and Craggy Point, in 13½° latitude.

Coast of Querimba.

Pemba bay and river are eight leagues north of Sinnacapa. The coast from hence to Cape Delgado is generally low, lined with islands and reefs four leagues off shore, within which there are channels frequented by the country vessels. The Querimba islands are low, woody, and surrounded by reefs. Querimba, the largest, is only four or five miles long, and has a Portuguese factory, and about 150 Portuguese inhabitants. The bay of Macaloe, north of Querimba, is a good harbour, formed by an island; on it is the trading negro town of Pingnanie, the residence of a sultan.

Cape

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Cape Delgado, ancient *Prasum* promontory according to Danville, is low and projecting, and here terminates the chain of islands and reefs that line the coast of Querimba. Mongallon river, on the north side of the cape, is entered by a channel a cable's length wide between shoals, but with nine and ten fathoms and the same depth within, where a single vessel may lay land-locked. Water is difficult to be procured, but wood is plentiful. The Arab vessels frequent this river, and the Portuguese procure some slaves here. Lindy River, five leagues from Mongallon, is spacious and easy of access, having thirty fathoms in the entrance, decreasing to eight at the village of Lindy, on the north bank. Wood, water, and provisions are abundant here. *Coast of Querimba.*

Quiloa harbour is formed by the island of the same name, five or six miles long, north and south. The channels on both sides are deep and safe. Two spacious inlets run into the land, with several islets in them, and depth for the largest ships. The main land is low, covered with mangrove swamps, and unhealthy. On the island Quiloa is a considerable Arab town, visited by the Muscat trading vessels, who take off slaves and elephants' teeth. *Zanguebar.*

On the coast of Zanguebar, from Quiloa to the Equator, are several chains of islands and reefs, with channels within them for small vessels. Except where sheltered by these islands, a heavy surf beats on the beach of the main, on which there is no place of shelter between Quiloa and

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Coast of Zanguebar.

and Mombaze. Monfia is a considerable island, surrounded by reefs. Zanzibar is a large island of a beautiful appearance, well wooded, and abundant in provisions, as bullocks, goats, rice and fruits; it is tributary to the Imaum of Muscat, who keeps a viceroy on it. The town on the east side is composed chiefly of huts of matting stretched on poles. Pemba Island, fifteen leagues from the coast, is low and of dangerous approach, and the channel between it and the main is filled with islets and reefs; there is, however, good anchorage at the N.E. part, where refreshments may be procured.

Mombaze harbour is a narrow inlet of the sea, with the island of the same name before it, on which is the ancient fort and town of the Portuguese, who have been driven out by the Arabs and negroes. The island, and main within it, are low land covered with wood; but it is known by three hummocks to the north.

From Mombaze to the Equator the coast is low, and lined with islands and shoals. The only places worthy of mention are the towns of Quiliffe and Melinda. The latter, at the mouth of the Quillimany, has a good port, but difficult of access from shoals; the town is large, with good stone houses and many mosques, and has a considerable trade by Arab vessels. The Portuguese were driven from hence by the Arabs in 1698. Formosa or Belle Bay, is farther north; then Patte Island; Arama, or Kiama Island; Jubo, a negro village, at the mouth of the Rio dos Fogos (river of fires), or Rogues

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Rogues River, which is crossed by a bar, with a great surf, but is practicable for boats in the fair season. The natives here are said to be unfriendly. Coast of Zanguebar.

The coast of Africa, from the Equator to the Red Sea, is called the coast of Ajan. From Rio dos Fogos to Brava the shore is low with a high surf, but free from shoals, so that it may be approached within two or three miles. Brava is an Arab town of good appearance, before which are several small islands, that shelter a road in which there are always seen Arab vessels. From Brava to Macaya the coast is sandy, barren, and without trees, but abounding in cattle and goats. Ajan.

Magadoxa, a large Arab town, easily known by three conspicuous mosques; the shore is here a sandy beach, protected by a coral reef; the natives are said to be unfriendly. From Magadoxa to Cape Bassas* the coast appears low and barren, but is in other respects little known. The cape is high, and is named from the reefs extending off it three or four leagues. From this cape to Negro Bay the shore is moderately high and even, composed of barren sand-hills, with very few trees. The soundings are regular, from fifty fathoms five or six leagues off, to thirty fathoms at three or four leagues.

Bandel

* Ancient *Serapionis* prom. according to Gossellin. *Noti Cornu* (Southern horn), according to Danville.

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Bandel d'Agoa, or Negro Bay, is limited on the south by Morro Cobir Point (serpent's head), to which succeeds Cape Delgado, so high as to be seen twelve leagues. From hence to Cape d'Orfui the coast forms a great open bay. Cape d'Orfui, the ancient *Chersonesus vel Zingis extrema*, is the extremity of a high peninsular promontory, joined to the main by a low isthmus, so as to make like an island from the south. Between this cape and that of Guardafui is the bay of Bela, entirely open, and with elevated steep shores.

Cape Guardafui (*Aromata promontorium*) is the south limit of the gulf of Socotra; it is a point descending in the manner of steps to the sea, and one mile from it there are no soundings. From hence to the entrance of the Red Sea the coast is inhabited by the Samaulies, who prohibit the entrance of all strangers into their ports, but trade in their own vessels with Aden and Mocha. This part of the coast, though now a sandy desert, is described in the *Periplus* of the *Erythræan* sea as being then covered with flourishing settlements of the Egyptian Greeks.

Mount Felix (*Elephas Mons*), fifteen leagues west of Cape Guardafui, is a high steep cliff, projecting into the sea from a plain, and seventeen leagues further is Cape St. Peter, at the termination of a ridge of rugged hills, one of which has the name of Dutchman's Cap.* Burnt, Bird, or White

* This fanciful name is frequently given by seamen to round topped hills.

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White Island (*Agathocles Insula*) is a great rock three leagues off shore, white with the excrement of sea birds. Berbera, or Borbora (*Mondi Emporium*), is one of the chief trading places of the Samaulies.

The bay of Zeila (*Avalites Sinus*) is filled with shoals; Cape Rasbel is its S.E. point. The town of Zeila is at the head of the bay, on the river Hoanza, and was before the arrival of the Portuguese in India a great trading place.

The island of Socotra (*Dioscorides*) is situated in the gulf of Socotra, forty leagues east of Cape Guardafui, hence it is *naturally* an African island, though some geographers give it to Arabia, from its inhabitants being of Arabic origin, and forming a dependence of the Sheik of Kessem, on the south coast of Arabia. It is twenty-seven leagues long east and west, and seven leagues broad, generally mountainous, and towards the sea presents the appearance of total sterility; its interior produces dates and aloes, and pastures cattle and goats, but it has no corn of any kind. It has no harbour, but possesses two roads with good anchorage, according to the monsoon; that on the N.E., named Tamarida, is the chief place, and here provisions and fresh water are most plentiful. The island is only visited by Arab vessels.

Between

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Between Socotra and Cape Guardafui, nearly in mid-channel, is the island Abdal Curia, formed of two hummocks; it is said to have fresh water. East of it are two islets, called the Brothers; and five leagues from the N.W. end of Socotra are the two Sabedyna, or White Rocks, resembling ships under sail.

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MADAGASCAR.

THE ancients were most probably unacquainted with the Island of MADAGASCAR, and it was first made vaguely known to Europeans by Marc Paul, who received some information respecting it by its present name, from the Arabs. It also escaped the notice of De Gama, who coasted along Africa, and was first seen by Lorenzo Almeida in 1506, from whom it probably received the name of St. Lawrence, which it retained until the reign of Henry IV., when some French navigators gave it that of Isle Dauphin. Its native name is *Madegasse.*

MADAGASCAR is one of the largest islands of the world, being 240 leagues long, from north to south, and from 40 to 70 leagues broad. It is separated from the coast of Africa by the channel of Mosambique, from 80 leagues to 120 broad. A ridge of high mountains * runs through the island from north to south, containing various valuable minerals and fossils; and also give rise to a vast number of rivers and rivulets, which reach the sea, and abound in fish. In no region of the

* Thought to have an elevation of 10 to 12,000 feet.

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globe is vegetation so luxuriant as in this island, where nature abandoned to its own fertility, produces the most various productions of the vegetable reign. The hills are covered to their summits with immense timber trees, and the plains or vast savannahs, are clothed with a rich herbage, affording pasture to innumerable cattle and sheep. Rice is cultivated to a great extent, and all the other vegetables and fruits of the tropics grow spontaneously. Unfortunately, however, this smiling scene is generally more than counterbalanced by the extreme unhealthiness of the climate, which renders it the almost certain grave of Europeans.

The wild animals of the island are of few species, there being neither lions, tigers, nor elephants, nor does it possess the horse.

At present Madagascar affords few objects of commerce, and its exports are almost totally confined to rice and cattle to the Mauritius. The Arabs export some of the species of fruit, called *sea cocoa-nut*, or cocoa-nut of the *Maldivas*, (*nux medica* of botanists). The tree which affords this fruit is a species of palm, and is found on the Isle of Palms, on the coast of Madagascar only; at least, it has not hitherto been discovered in any other part of the world. The nuts picked up on the shores of the Maldiva islands, are probably conveyed there in the S.W. monsoon, when the currents between Madagascar and these islands set to the N.E.

The nuts of the *Ravenisera* have also been exported:

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ported: they are of an acrid aromatic nature, and used by the natives to season their food. The other objects of commerce are eagle or aloe wood (*agallochum*), which may be procured in any quantity, but of which little or none is taken off. The island affords cotton, and many useful gums and resins, amongst which is the elastic gum, or India rubber (*iatropha elastica*).

The island of Madagascar is inhabited by various tribes or casts, whose physical and moral characteristics denote their being descended from very different races.

The *Betsimicaracs*, or negro race, who inhabit the N.E. coast, are in general stout and well made, and the women handsome; but the men are drunkards, cowards, and thieves. The *Antibanivouls*, neighbours of the last named cast, are more laborious and less debauched, but also more stupid and ignorant. The *Betalimenes* employ themselves chiefly in raising cattle.

The *Hovas*, who inhabit the province of Ancove, near the middle of the island, differ entirely from the above tribes. They are tall and well made, though rather slender, and much resemble the natives of India, having long black hair, aquiline noses, and thin lips: there is also some difference in their dialect. This cast is by far the most advanced in the arts, being acquainted with the manner of forging iron, and are correct imitators of the nicest European works in metal: their chains of gold and silver are particularly fine. They inhabit the most healthy pro-

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vince of the island, being from its elevation so cold in winter that fires are necessary; but the province producing neither tree nor shrub, they use the straw of a gramineous plant as fuel.

The *Antamahouris* form another peculiar cast, whose language differs from that of the other tribes, being a dialect of the Malay, and their features also denote their being descended from the Malay race.* A detail of the subdivisions of all these races would lead us far beyond the limits we have prescribed to ourselves, and we must therefore confine our notice to a few of the prominent and general traits in the Madagasse character.

The *Madagasses* taken generally are lazy, spending three-fourths of their time in their huts, stretched on a mat, and playing on the *marou-vané*, or *tritri*. Their only serious employments are the chase, fishing, and occasionally looking after their cattle. Careless of the future, the Madagasse little fears the frowns of fortune, and as he is unacquainted either with love or friendship, he has little to disturb the tranquillity of his mind. His religion extends to the acknowledgement of a preserving deity, to whom he pays no

* In the center of the island is said to exist a race of dwarfs, named *Kimos*, who do not exceed three feet and half in height, whose arms are extremely long, with paws like those of the ape, and the females totally without breasts, nourishing their infants with cows milk, of which animals they breed great herds. A *Kimos* woman was sold to the French at Fort Dauphin in 1768, and is the only individual of the species ever seen by Europeans.

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no devotion, but on the contrary, loads him with invectives, when any misfortune happens to him. He also believes in an evil spirit, whose habitual residence is in burying places, and hence he will not approach a grave during the night. In general his youth is spent in debauchery, and it is not until the middle of his career that he takes a wife to accompany him the rest of the way. The marriage ceremony consists in killing a bullock, and feasting the two families. All ages are addicted to excess of spirituous liquors, and to their own intoxicating mixtures.

A Madagasse accused of sorcery is confined in a solitary hut without victuals for two or three days, when he is obliged to undergo an ordeal by swallowing a poisonous infusion, which if he keeps down is sure to destroy, at the same time that it convicts him, but if he has the good fortune to throw it up, by the natural exertion of the stomach alone, he lives and is acquitted. The same trial is ordered to persons of both sexes, accused of incestuous intercourse, as well as in cases of doubtful robbery, for where the fact is proved, the criminal is condemned to slavery.

The professions of priest and physician are here, as amongst most savage nations, united in the same person: and are practised only by individuals of the Arab tribes.

The dress of the women consists in a girdle, or kind of petticoat, and a long piece of cloth, one end of which is folded round the hips, while the other covers the shoulders, and head in wet weather:

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ther; a corset closed both before and behind like a banyan, and which leaves the bosom bare, completes the dress. The ornaments of the women are necklaces and bracelets of glass beads, or gold and silver chains. Both sexes wear amulets of bits of certain woods, &c. enveloped in cloth on their necks and wrists, to defend them from the effects of sorcery. The leaves of the *ravensera* serve the purposes of plates, dishes, and spoons. The various estimations of the population of Madagascar make it from a million to a million and half of souls.

West Coast. The western side of Madagascar has many bays and rivers, but very few of them are ever visited by European ships and consequently are very little known. The most frequented is St. Augustine's bay at the S.W. extremity of the island, which is a safe road where may be had any quantity of refreshments, particularly bullocks, goats, fowls, Guinea fowls, oranges, limes, plantains, pumpkins, yams, and sweet potatoes. They are procured from the natives in exchange for gunpowder, looking-glasses, muskets, pistols, brass and iron pots, knives and scissars, nails, flints, &c. Water is filled in the boats four or five miles up a river, named Dartmouth, which falls into the bay and which abounds (as well as the bay) in fish, but is also infested by the alligator. The chief of this part of the island resides in a mud-built town twelve miles from the bay; most of the natives who go on board ship to barter, speak a little English and have taken English

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English titles, such as the Prince of Wales, Duke of York, &c. West Coast.

Morundava bay, in latitude 20° 16′, is sometimes visited for refreshments; it is exposed from N.W. to S.W. and has several shallow barred rivers falling into it. A village of huts is on the north side of the bay.

Bembatook bay in 15° 43′ is large and safe, and represented as one of the most eligible places in the island for a European settlement. Bullocks and rice are very abundant, as well as other objects of commerce. The French purchased slaves and cattle here for the use of the Isle of France; which were drove across the island to Foul point, where the slaves were embarked and the cattle slaughtered and salted. The natives are friendly to strangers and the Arabs of the continent visit this port for purposes of trade. The town, from which the bay has its name, is three leagues within the entrance of the bay, and on a cove entirely land locked and accessible to ships.

New Masseliege is a large town on a barred river accessible only to small craft. It is protected by a mud fort with many canon; and the king's residence is built in the European manner with two stories, with an armoury and many articles of European furniture, as tables, chairs, looking-glasses, &c. Many Arabs reside here and trade to Arabia and Persia. Opposite the river's mouth is an island about four miles long, on which the French had once an establishment.

Manigara river is said to be six miles broad at

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the entrance, with six and seven fathoms three leagues up.

The bight or bay of Astada is a large indentation at the N.W. end of the island, with several islands before it. Here is Morigambo harbour, described as capacious and safe.

Passandava, at the N.W. extremity of the island, is a large bay running seven leagues to the south. It abounds in provisions, wood, and water.

East Coast.

Fort Dauphin, the principal establishment of the French, is near the S.E. extremity of the island, on a cove capable of receiving five or six vessels, land-locked. The fort is situated on high ground commanding the road, and is a long square surrounded by a wall of lime and gravel coated with cement. Two leagues south of the fort is a large river, which, at a short distance from its mouth expands into a lake, fifteen miles in circuit; the mouth of the river is however, as well as most others on the east coast, barred against the entrance of ships. This part of the island is very populous and under a great many chiefs: their villages are on eminences, fortified with parapets of turf, pallisades, and ditches. Bullocks, poultry, and provisions are abundant, but good water is only found at some distance from the shore, where are excellent springs. The bay of St. Luce is within several islands and reefs: on its south point the French formed a pallisaded establishment in 1787.

Manooro river, in latitude 20°, is much frequented by the French of the Mauritius for rice and

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and cattle. The natives manufacture fine mats and cloth from the fibres of a plant, as well as cloth from the cotton of the island. There is a village at the mouth of the river, and before it good anchorage within a reef. East Coast.

Hy Vondron is a considerable village, and great rice market, three leagues south of Tamatave. This latter is on a lagoon, named Nossebe; landing is difficult, from a high surf. The French had a post here, to procure cattle and rice for their islands, but which was taken by the English in 1811; it was on a high point of land and considered healthy. The Isle of Prunes is three leagues from Tamatave, small but covered with wood, and has fresh water. Between Tamatave and Foul Point are several villages on the shore.

Foul Point, (*Vouku-Voulu* of the natives), the second establishment of the French, is on a cove within a reef, which shelters the anchorage. The French settlement consists of a piece of ground, surrounded by pallisades, with a house for the resident, sheds, &c. A large native village is close to it, where is the king's residence, consisting of a story, raised from the ground, ascended to by a ladder, and surrounded by the huts of his attendants and women. Slaves and cattle are procured here by the French in exchange for musquets, powder and shot, flints, knives, &c.

St. Mary's Island (*Nossi Ibrahim* of the natives) is two leagues from the main; the east side is lined with breakers, but the west side forms a good

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East Coast. good port, with depth and capacity for the largest fleets. The country abounds in provisions, and spars for masts may be had here. The French formed an establishment here in 1740, but the persons in it were all massacred by the natives. In 1743 they renewed it, but it was abandoned in 1760, on account of its unhealthiness. This island was the rendezvous of the European pirates that infested the Indian seas in the beginning of the last century.(A)

Antougil bay (*Manghabees* of the natives) is eight or nine leagues wide, and fifteen deep; its shores are elevated, and towards its head are some islands, within which is an excellent harbour, called by the French, Port Choiseul. Several rivers fall into the bay, but they are all barred against the entrance of any thing but boats, though deep within. This is one of the most fertile parts of the island, but also the most unhealthy: the tide rises three or four feet. Here the French attempted to form an establishment conducted by the celebrated adventurer *Beniowsky*.

Port Louquez, at the N.E. extremity of the island, is a capacious and secure harbour for the largest fleets; it is also said to be healthy and abundant in provisions.

The chief capes of Madagascar are, Cape St. Mary, the south point; Cape St. Andrew, the N.W.; Cape Ambre, the north; and Cape East, the east.

The following are the islands, rocks, and shoals in the Mosambique Channel:—

Bassas

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Bassas de India,* a low island, five miles long and three broad, with some low hummocks, and lined by a sandy beach; it has some trees, 22° 28′ S. 40° 57′ E. East Coast.

Europa Rocks, a dangerous reef of considerable extent, and partly above water, 21° 35′ S. 40° 8′ E.

Coffin, Savou, or Stony Island, low and small, four leagues off the coast of Madagascar, 17° 30′ S.

Juan de Nova, or St. Christopher, seem to be the same island, though two are laid down in most charts. It is about two miles long, and covered with shrubs, and the resort of aquatic birds, 17° 5′ S. 43° 2′ E.

Chesterfield Shoal, with a small dry patch, 16° 21′ S. 44° 8′ E.

THE COMORO ISLANDS.

The Comoro Islands lay in the north entrance of the Mosambique Channel, and are four in number, *viz.* Comoro, called by the natives Angaziga; Anjuan, or Hinzuan, corrupted to Johanna by Europeans, Mayotta, and Moelly or Mohilla.

Anjuan is of a triangular shape, and rises in well wooded mountains, the highest of which terminates in a small peak; the whole island is covered with calcined substances that evince the effects of volcanic fires. The climate is healthy; and though towards the sea the land is

* Named by the Portuguese, *Baxos de Judia*, (Banks of the Jewess) which, by the mistake of transcribing an n for an u from the Portuguese charts, has been made *India*.

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is not very fertile, it improves inland. The vallies, or rather glens, have each their rivulet descending from the steep mountains which bound them, and whose summits are covered with timber trees, and their bases with cocoa nuts, bananas, oranges, and lemons. The sugar-cane comes to perfection as well as the indigo plant. The only wild animals known on the island are the makis and the common mouse; the domestic ones are very small horned cattle with humps, and goats. The commonest birds are, Guinea fowl, doves, and quails. The population of the island in 1804 was not calculated at more than 6 or 7,000; though it appears to have been formerly much greater. The natives seem to be a mixture of Arabs and negroes; their religion is also a mixture of Mahometanism and negro idolatry. They are good sailors, and have vessels called *trankeys* of some burden, in which they trade to Bombay and Surat with cocoa-nuts and cowries.

Anjuan is governed by a chief or sultan, who pretends to a superiority over the other islands. The people are divided into nobles and peasants; the former are the only merchants, and monopolize the trade of supplying European vessels with fresh provisions, the only purpose for which they touch at this island.

The bay of Moochadon, on the north side of the island, is the place now usually visited by European ships: this bay occupies the whole of this side, the N.E. and N.W. points of the island being its limits. Off the former are some breakers, but it may be approached within half a mile; and

off

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off the N.W. point is a small island, called the Paps, united to the point by a reef. Several rivulets fall into this bay, so that watering is easy. The town is a mere assemblage of miserable hovels, surrounded by a wall fifteen feet high, flanked with square towers. It is also defended by a kind of fort, on an elevation; the ascent to which is by 3 to 400 steps, inclosed between two walls. There are also two villages on this bay, one on the east, and the other on the west.

On a bay of the east side of the island was the town of Anjuan, formerly the usual anchorage of European vessels; but the town was destroyed by the Madagasses, in 1790.

Comoro, or *Angaziga*, though twenty-five leagues distant from Anjuan, is so high as to be seen from it, and appears at this distance as an immense mountain. The coasts are said to be difficult of access, and it has no good anchorage; but it contains several villages, of which the principal are on the N.W. where is a fine sandy beach without surf.

Mayotta, seven leagues S.E. of Anjuan, has tolerable anchorage on the north, before a large village. In 1804 its population was estimated at only 12 to 1,500 persons. Off its N.E. point is an island of similar appearance to the Paps of Anjuan, which may produce a dangerous mistake in taking this island for the former: the north side of Mayotta being lined with shoals and reefs.

Mœlly, or Mohilla, five leagues S.W. of Anjuan, is surrounded by reefs, through which are some passages. It has a village on the north, and another

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another on the south; at the former is a tolerable watering place.

These islands, and particularly Anjuan, are often invaded by the Madagasses, who lay every thing waste with fire and sword. In the month of October their predatory expeditions assemble in the Bay of Vahemas, from whence they proceed along the coast to the Isle of Nosse, increasing their force as they proceed, until it often amounts to 600 canoes, with thirty to thirty-five men in each; they then steer to the west, regulating their course by the sun and stars, till they reach the Comoro Islands, which, however, they often miss, and either perish at sea, or arrive at the coast of Africa.

ISLE OF BOURBON.

The Isle of Bourbon was discovered in 1545 by the Portuguese, who named it *Mascarhenas*, after the discoverer. This nation neglecting it, the French agent at Madagascar took possession of it in 1642, but made no efficient settlement. In 1646 the colonists of Madagascar mutinying, twelve of the ringleaders were banished to this island, which they found entirely covered with wood. In 1654 it received the name of Bourbon, and some cattle having been conveyed to it, multiplied exceedingly. The French, however, appear to have again neglected the island until 1671, when it was granted to the French East India Company.

At the French revolution the name of Bourbon was

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was changed to *La Réunion*, and in the year 1806 the island received the name of *Buonaparte!* In 1809 it was captured by the English.

Bourbon is fourteen leagues long, and nine broad. It is composed entirely of lava and other volcanic substances, thrown out by two craters; the largest of which is extinct, and has an elevation of 1,400 yards; the second vomits continual flames: the whole island, indeed, presents the appearance of the dregs of a volcano, perpendicular hills of every shape being scattered in confusion, separated by yawning chasms, through which foaming torrents precipitate themselves. Immense masses of rock overhang the brow of frightful precipices, and appear moveable by the slightest touch; rugged scoriæ, basaltic prisms, disposed in regular ranges; in short, there is not a spot of the island but presents the vestiges of subterraneous fires.

The shore is generally bordered by a narrow beach, covered with volcanic stones, nor is real sand found on any part of it, while in many places the cliffs project over the sea, and leave no possibility of landing. The coast between St. Peter's and St. Paul's, on the west side, is bordered by reefs of coral, from whence the lime used on the island is procured. A border of about a league and a half in depth round the island, is all that is clear and cultivated. On the windward side the land rises gradually, and here are the chief plantations, though the leeward side is the most fertile: the former has, however, the advantage of

of being refreshed by the sea breezes, and is therefore preferred as a residence.

The spots of lava not yet covered with any soil, which form nearly half the superfices of the island, are named Les Brûlées (the Burnt); and there are other uncultivated tracks, called savannahs, covered with gramineous plants, of which no use is made, but which would afford excellent pasture for sheep, if the moss was destroyed.

Coffee and cotton were originally the chief objects of cultivation at Bourbon. The former, it seems, was introduced from Arabia, and grafted on a wild kind indigenous in the island. It is considered as having very little degenerated. The manner of gathering and drying it is the same as in the West Indies; but the coffee of Bourbon ripens and is gathered in the dry season, from March to October, while that of the West Indies is in the wet; and it is packed in bags, made of the leaves of the *pandanus istilis*, which hold 100lbs. each. Under the French dominion, coffee was almost the only medium of exchange in the island, and answered the purpose of circulating specie. The owners lodged it in the public magazines, and received receipts, which were as efficient in circulation as coin, at the rate of ten Spanish dollars the bag. On exportation in foreign vessels every bag pays one dollar and a half, and half a dollar in French vessels.

The cultivation of cotton has greatly decreased since the revolution, in consequence of the war having rendered the exportation very precarious, and

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and often impossible; and the same cause preventing the importation of grain from Madagascar. Cotton has generally been superseded by Indian corn and rice, both for the consumption of this island and the Isle of France.

In 1770 the spices of the Moluccas were first introduced into Bourbon. The clove was found to succeed the best, but has still greatly degenerated. The cultivation has nevertheless been continued, and has increased to a considerable extent. The harvest commences in October, and lasts till December.

The produce of the island in 1803 was,

55,700 quintals of wheat.
54,300 do. maize.
30,000 do. coffee.
15,000 do. cloves.

In 1810, 55,000 do. coffee, at 10 Sp. d. the quintal.
45,000 do. cloves, at 33 do. do.
cotton, at 25 do. do.

Rearing bees is also one branch of the industry of the islanders, and the honey is as celebrated as that of Hybla.

Besides the objects above mentioned, the island produces cacaa, tobacco, cocoa-nuts, tamarinds, and other tropical fruits; gum benjamin, ebony, aloes, &c.

The salubrity of the climate is particularly exemplified in the blooming complexions of the young females, who, though born within the tropic, and most of them having a *taint* of negro

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blood, will bear a comparison in this respect with northern beauties.

In the month of January heavy gales of wind are common, which often do great damage. From March to October is the most dangerous season for ships, when, according as the wind may be, they should be always prepared to go to sea on the appearance of a gale.

Though the island is entirely volcanic, earthquakes are uncommon, and the shocks, when they happen, very slight and partial; neither has it any warm or mineral springs, nor the appearance of any other metal than iron.

Some species of animals, indigenous to the island, have been nearly, if not totally extirpated by the Maroon hunters: such is the dronté, or *didus-neptus*, described by Linneus, Nat. Hist. Ois. 480. The hog and goat, both introduced by the Portuguese, and which became a wild race, are also exterminated, as well as the land tortoise, which filled the woods; and even the sea turtle has abandoned its shores. Wild horses are met with.

The population of the island, in 1763, was 4,000 whites and 15,000 negroes and people of colour.

In 1776 Raynal makes the number 6,340 whites, and 26,165 slaves.

1800 eight to 9,000 whites and free people of colour, and 100,000 slaves.

1810 16,000 do. do. and 90,000 slaves.

The

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The Maroon hunters form a distinct class of the population; they are in general free people of colour, who have no inheritance and are too proud to work. They usually purchase a female slave as a wife, and continually traverse the most inaccessible parts of the island, where run-away or Maroon negroes conceal themselves. Perhaps no human beings in a state of society suffer such privations as these hunters. The caverns of the rocks are their only habitations, and a little rice their whole sustenance while absent on their excursions.

This island is seldom visited by European vessels, and hence the inhabitants depend on the Isle of France for all the merchandize of Europe, for which they give their produce in exchange.

The island is divided into eleven districts or quarters, *viz.* St. Denis, St. Paul, St. Louis, St. S. Lew, St. Peter, St. Rose, St. Susannah, St. Mary, St. Benoit, St. Joseph, and St. Andrew.

St. Denis, on the north, is the chief place of the island. Its road is entirely open, and landing is inconvenient, though a kind of draw-bridge, or hanging jetty, of timber, secured by iron chains, is constructed for the purpose: it extends eighty feet into the sea, and at its extremity a rope-ladder is fixed to ascend by. The town consists of a number of straggling houses enclosed by palisades, they are generally of wood with bare walls, and wretchedly furnished, owing to the enormous price of every article of foreign merchandise. The town is divided into upper and lower: in the former re-

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side the most wealthy of the inhabitants; and the latter, which is at the mouth of the river St. Denis, and has besides a rivulet running through it, is occupied by the shop-keepers and lower class.

St. Paul's, on the N.W., seven leagues to leeward of St. Denis, is the second place of the island. Its road is protected by a point on the N.E. and by some rocks off Point Houssaie on the S.W., but is open to the N.W.; the depth is nineteen to twenty-four fathoms two miles off shore. This is capable of being made an excellent harbour, at a trifling expense, by running out a pier, and cutting a communication with a lake behind the beach, which, by being deepened, would form a fine basin. Vessels are here, as well as at St. Denis, loaded by canoes with great dispatch. This road and St. Denis are the only ones of the island for ships of any burden, and are secure in the dry season, from October to March; the other months, a heavy swell often rolls in with westerly winds.

St. Lew, near the middle of the west side, is a large and handsome village; but the anchorage in the road is very unsafe: it is, therefore, only visited by small craft, three or four times a year, to take off the produce, who remain always under sail.

St. Peter's, on the S.W., is a village of a few houses, and some magazines. It is situated on the right point of the entrance of the river Abord, which, it is thought, may be made a good haven for merchant vessels, by constructing two jetties. This is the hottest part of the island, and the soil in

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in the neighbourhood is generally barren, the date being the only tree that thrives, but some spots afford an abundant crop of cotton.

St. Rose, on the S.E., consists of a church surrounded by a few houses. It is situated on a little bay, in which the sea is generally pretty smooth, and vessels therefore anchor off it. It has also a little creek where the boats land without difficulty.

St. Suzanna, on the N.E., consists of a few scattered houses, in a fine situation, and surrounded by fields of wheat and maize.

St. Marie, four miles north of St. Suzanna, consists of isolated houses, surrounding a circular bay, into which falls a river of the same name.

ISLE OF FRANCE.

The Isle of FRANCE was discovered by the Portuguese in 1500, and named *Acerno*, or Isle of Swans; but being neglected by them, the Dutch took possession of it in 1598, and named it *Mauritius*, after their stadtholder, Prince Maurice. It was not, however, till 1640 that they formed an establishment on it at Grosport, but in 1712 they again abandoned it; and three years after, the French East India Company formed an establishment at Port Louis, and gave the island its present name. In 1764 the company ceded it, together with the Isle of Bourbon, to the crown.

The island is fourteen leagues long, and eight broad, being of an irregular oval figure, contain-

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ing 340,000 square acres, and is surrounded by coral reefs and islets. The land gradually rises from the shore towards the centre of the island, where is a woody plain, elevated 1,500 feet above the level of the sea. In the midst of this plain is a sharp conical mountain, called Le Piton de Milieu de l'Isle. There are several other distinct mountains, the principal of which is named *Piter Boot*, whose summit is surmounted with an enormous and inaccessible rock, the elevation being 3,000 feet: its base is surrounded by marshes, from whence the principal rivers of the island issue. These rivers have, however, sensibly diminished, by the indiscriminate destruction of the forests that clothed the sides of the hills, so that the island, which was formerly profusely watered, is now, particularly on the north, where the rivulets are all dried up, almost in want of it. There are some lakes among the mountains.

The vegetable productions of the island are extremely numerous, and afford a vast harvest to a botanist; but the account of them does not come within the limits of our work: it is said, however, that one half the flora of the island is composed of ferns and *cryptogams*.

Though, in general, the soil is less fertile than that of Bourbon, and is every where covered with rocks that preclude the use of the plough, yet a considerable quantity of land is in cultivation, producing coffee, cotton, indigo, sugar, and some rice in the swampy spots.

The wild animals of the island are, deer, hedgehogs,

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hogs, monkeys, and rats of various kinds. The horned cattle are of the small Madagascar breed, with humps; and the horses of the Arabian extraction, but much degenerated.

Birds are not numerous, and are chiefly of the smaller species. Some of them are foreigners, particularly the *Calfat*, which is said to be propagated from some individual escaped from captivity, and the *martin* was purposely introduced from the Philippines to destroy the insects which devoured the vegetables, and has completely succeeded in extirpating caterpillars, grasshoppers, &c. but these birds have also multiplied so prodigiously as to be almost as destructive as the insects to the crops; hence every proprietor is obliged to present a certain number of their heads, as well as those of sparrows, to the magistrates annually.

The population of the island in

	Whites.	People of colour.	Slaves.
1763 was	3,000	500	15,000
1776	3,431	1,190	25,154
1806	7,000	7,000	70,000

The produce of the island is estimated as follows:

Coffee	600,000 lb.
Cotton	500,000
Indigo	300,000
Sugar	5,000,000
Cloves	20,000

The island is divided into twelve quarters, *viz.* Port Louis, Poudre d'Or, Pamplemouses, (celebrated by the pen of St. Pierre), Flac, La

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Riviere des Remparts, Trois Islets, Gros Port, Savannah, the military quarter (in the centre of the island and almost uninhabited and uncultivated), Moka, the Plains of Willems, and the Plains of St. Pierre.

Port *Louis*, at the revolution called Port Liberty, and Port North-West, and since, Port Napoleon, is the only town of the island: it contains about 5,000 whites, and double that number of people of colour. The houses are chiefly of wood, and few of them have more than the ground floor, in consequence of the heavy storms the island is subject to.

The entrance of the port is between two reefs, running out from each point, and is so narrow, that but one vessel can be warped or towed in at a time, for the S.E. wind blowing almost constantly, prevents their sailing in, except occasionally when the S.W. wind serves for an hour or two; and a light air from the N.W. also sometimes prevails, but this is very precarious. The port is capable of holding about fifty ships.

Cooper's Island off the North Point of the entrance of the port, to which it is joined by an artificial causeway 800 feet long, is nearly level with the water, and is strongly fortified, but commanded by batteries on the main.

Port *Bourbon*, the ancient Gros Port, at the revolution named Port South-East, and since Port Imperial. Its entrance is defended by Isle Passe, a coral rock, one league off shore, on which is a circular

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circular battery and barracks. This island has no fresh water.

Port de la Savannah, or Souillac, on the south, is a tolerable road defended by a battery.

Great Black River, on the S.W. has a good road before it, within coral reefs. It is defended by some batteries, but has not water for large ships within gun-shot of them. Small craft can only enter the river.

Off the north end of the Isle of France are several small volcanic isles, *viz.* Coin de Mire, three miles and a half north of Cape Malheureux (the north point of the island), with a safe channel between: this island is entirely composed of beds of lava.

Flat Island, north of Coin du Mire, is less elevated than the others; the shore is a white calcareous stone, and the other parts of a reddish colour: on it is the appearance of a volcanic crater.

Pigeon-House Island, a little west of Flat Island, is an enormous lump of bazaltic lava, of a reddish brown colour.

Round Island rises in the form of a cone, about 200 feet high: its shores are rugged, precipitous, and inaccessible.

Serpent's Island, the northernmost, is five leagues distant from the main. It has its name from small serpents being said to be found on it, although this reptile is unknown in the Isle of France, or any of the surrounding islets.

The administration of the Isles of France and Bourbon

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Bourbon was confided to a governor-general residing at the former island.

RODERIGUE.

Roderigue, or Diego Rays, is a dependency of the Isle of France, from whence it is distant 100 leagues to the eastward. It is four or five leagues long, and two broad; it is mountainous and rugged, being composed of a calcareous rock, thinly covered with a vegetable mould, but is, nevertheless, well wooded and fruitful, producing rice, wheat, maize, fruits, and vegetables. It was formerly frequented by great numbers of green turtle, but which, probably from frequent disturbance, have entirely abandoned it. The land tortoise, with which it also abounded, is entirely extirpated. It shores abound in fish.

During the persecution of the Protestants in France, some gentlemen of that persuasion sought refuge in this island, but soon quitted it; not, however, until they had rendered it considerable service, by planting the first cocoa-nuts on it, which they found drifted by the waves on the beach.

When the English expedition against the Isles of France and Bourbon rendezvoused at this island in 1809, they found its inhabitants consisted of three Frenchmen, two of whom had families, and eighty slaves, who possessed seventeen horned cattle, ten sheep, twenty goats, twenty-five turkies, and a few fowls.

Except

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Except on the N.E. side, the island is surrounded by reefs three to six miles off shore. On this side is the best anchorage, within several reefs, close to the shore; the channels between require great caution.

Scattered Islands and Reefs in the INDIAN SEA.

Cargados Garajos is a chain of low islets and sand-banks in the form of a crescent, with anchorage on the concave or *lee* side to the N.W. A large coral bank runs from these islands to the N.W. This appears to be the Nazareth bank of the old charts.

Saya de Malha, or Bank of Misfortune, is of great extent, but very little known. It is in 10° south, and 61° to 62° east.

Gallega (thought to be the same as Roquepiz of Davis 1610), are two small islands in 10½° south, but uncertain longitude.

Sandy Island, in 15° 52′ south, and about 55° east, is a spot of low land, only one-third of a mile long and not so broad. A French slave ship was lost on it in 1761, the Europeans of which arrived at Madagascar in a boat constructed of the wreck; but the blacks were left on the island, where they all perished except seven women, who remained

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remained on it fifteen years, subsisting on the shell-fish and turtles, and drinking only the brackish water. They were taken off the island by a French ship in 1776.

Off the north end of Madagascar are some scattered islands of which we have little description.

Glorieuse, two small islands on a reef W.N.W. thirty-five leagues from Cape Ambre.

Cosmoledo, a cluster of low islands of lime-stone and coral, on a reef: they produce only shrubs, and are distant fifty-two leagues N.W. by W. from Cape Ambre.

Assumption, a low island with sand downs covered with shrubs, seven miles long, has anchorage on the west side, but on the east the coral reef is steep to.

Aldabra Islands are two, at some distance from each other, but with many islets and rocks between. They are flat and swampy, covered with small trees, and abounding with the land tortoise.

Juan de Nova, N.E. of Cape Ambre, is a semicircular chain of coral islets and reefs eight leagues long. The concave or *lee* side to the N.W. forms a kind of basin with a channel into it through the reef, with seven and eight feet. The islands have small trees, but no fresh water.

St. Laurence, a reef, and two sandy islands, N.W. of Juan de Nova, and farther in the same direction

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tion is St. Pierre, a coral and lime-stone island, with small trees.

Providence Island, north of Juan de Nova, is low, nine miles in circuit. Its north end is covered with cocoa-palms, and its south with a spongy tree that grows to the height of fifty feet. The island has fresh water, and abounds with land crabs.(B) A French frigate was wrecked on the reef which surrounds this island in 1769, and gave it the name of Providence, from saving the crew, who reached Madagascar in their boat lengthened.

Alphonzo Island, in 7° 4′, nine miles in circuit, is low; and five leagues south of it are two other low islets.

The Amirante Islands are an extensive archipelago of coral islets and reefs; the three southernmost are named des Neufs, la Louise, and Boudeuse. Eagle Island, the northernmost (Remire of the French) is low, sandy, three miles in circuit, and covered with shrubs. There are five or six others of a similar nature. They all are visited by turtles and frequented by aquatic birds.

The African Islands are two small ones, six leagues north of the bank that surrounds the Amirante Islands. They have only a few shrubs and are destitute of fresh water.

The Seychelles, or Mahé, a group of about twenty islands, on a bank which extends east from Mahé Island forty leagues, with from ten to thirty-five fathoms, on which are vast shoals of fish.

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fish. These islands were discovered in 1743, by a French ship, and named after Mahé de Bourdonnais, then governor of the Mauritius. These islands are woody, but very healthy; they have no wild animals except the land tortoise, nor any venomous reptile.

Mahé, the principal island, is sixteen miles long and five broad. It is hilly, but with fertile plains and vallies; on it is the chief French settlement, consisting of about 100 families, with upwards of 1000 negro slaves. The island produces cotton, rice and other corn, sugar cane, some cloves and nutmegs, of which the plants were introduced from the Moluccas, besides all the fruits and roots of the tropics. Mahé has a good road and a little harbour within banks.

Praslin, a high island, and next in size to Mahé, from which it is eight leagues distant: it has a good road on the north, sheltered by the little island Curieuse. It has some French families.

Silhouette is the third in size, and is six leagues N.W. of Mahé. All the other islands are small, generally low, and surrounded by reefs: the easternmost are named Frigate Island, Three Sisters, Felicité, and Marianne. The north-easternmost is Denis, or Orixa Island, and the northernmost Sea-Cow, or Bird's Island, very low, and with only shrubs. It has its name of Sea-Cow from being frequented by the Manati.

St. Trouis, or Coetivy Island, is very small, in latitude

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latitude 7° 12′ south, 56° 22′ east. The Fortune bank, or shoal, with breakers, is in the same parallel, and in 57° 38′ east.

The Chagos Islands, in the old charts Bassas de Chagos, are a great number of islands and reefs, extending between the latitudes of 7° 29′ and 4° 40 south. The island of Diego Garcia, at the south extremity of this archipelago, is five leagues long, north and south, of a crescent shape, the concave side, to the westward, forming a kind of lagoon, or natural harbour, nearly the size of the island, the breadth of the latter being only from the one-tenth to one half a mile broad. This coral wall is not above ten feet higher than the level of the sea, but is covered with tall cocoa palms. The exterior, or east side of the island, is fronted by a coral reef, steep to, against which the sea breaking furiously, prevents all access. Between the *horns* of the crescent, on the west side, are three islands, but with *one* channel only for ships, and the depth in the lagoon is five to seven fathoms. The lagoon abounds in fish, and green turtle frequent the external beaches; land crabs are also abundant, and feed on the cocoa-nuts as they fall from the trees. Good water may be procured by digging wells eight or ten feet deep.

S.E. winds prevail here from April to November, with west and N.W. currents, at the rate of twelve to twenty miles a day. In December and January N.W. winds blow constant, with a S.E. current.

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current. During the other months the winds are light and variable.*

In 1783 the French took possession of this island, and sent some negroes to collect turtle on it for the Isle of France. The following year (according to the French statement) the English took possession with a small party of troops, but which on the reclamation of the French government were withdrawn.†

The Six Islands, or Egmont Islands, are on the Chagos Bank, twenty-three leagues north by west of Diego Garcia: they are all low, covered with wood, and three only affording cocoa nuts. They occupy a space of six miles, are connected by reefs, and have no anchorage, the reefs being steep to. They are in latitude 6° 37′ south. Danger Island is a similar small coral patch, with shrubs and a few cocoa-nut trees, five leagues N.N.W. of the Six Islands. The two Eagle Islands are N.N.E. four leagues from Danger Island, and the Three Brothers are four leagues east of these latter.

Peros Banhos Islands are the largest group on the Chagos Bank, occupying a space of twelve leagues in circuit, and composed of several clusters of islets and reefs, separated by deep channels: their latitude is 5° 20′.

The

* Horsburgh's India Directory.

† Probably this alludes to the survey of these islands by Capt. Blair, of the East India Company's service, in 1786.

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The Solomon's Islands, in 5° 23′, is another cluster of eleven islets, in a space of five miles in length: on the N.W. they form a lagoon, or semicircular bason, at the entrance of which is a bar, with but three fathoms, within which the depths are ten to fifteen fathoms. This group affords cocoa-nuts, and fresh water may be procured by digging wells five or six feet deep. Captain Blair, who surveyed these islands, remarks, that they seem to be of older formation than the others of this archipelago, the soil being deeper and better, and producing trees 130 feet high, four in diameter, and forty from the ground to the first branches.

Sandy Islands are three low ones, connected by reefs, six leagues E.N.E. of Solomon's Islands, and the last to the north on the Chagos Bank.

The Cocos, or Keeling Islands, are a group occupying a space of ten leagues: the northernmost stands alone, is five or six miles long and three or four broad, with *apparently* good landing on the *west* side. The southern extreme is composed of several islets, forming a crescent, with a similar lagoon to several already noticed. These islands are low, and abound in cocoa-nut trees. Latitude 11° 50′ S:, Longitude 97° E.

Christmas Island, also called Money Island, is three leagues long each way, being nearly square. It is so elevated as to be seen twelve

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leagues. It is well wooded, and cocoa-nuts and *limes* are abundant; it is also said to have *wild hogs* and land crabs, and to afford water: it is, however, without anchorage, the depth all round being 100 fathoms close to the shore, and has only one place where landing is practicable, on the N.W. side. Lat. 10° 30′ S., long. 105° 35′ E.

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THE RED SEA.

The Red Sea (*Sinus Arabicus*) is a gulf of the Sea of Arabia, 500 leagues in length and seventy-five where broadest. It is entered from the Gulf of Socotra by a channel, ten leagues wide, in which is the little desert island of Perim, or Mehun, three miles and a half distant from the Arabian shore, the channel between being the proper strait of Babelmandeb,* and which is the most used, as it is without danger, and has good anchorage, while the broad passage, between the coast of Africa and Perim, has too great a depth of water, and the current usually setting strong into the Bay of Zeila, it is dangerous to be caught here in a calm.

The denomination of *Red*, given to this sea, is differently accounted for. Buffon admits the idea that it received it from the colour of the coral with which it abounds; but this substance is in

 general

* This strait is generally written and pronounced Bab-el-Mandel, which in Arabic signifies, *the gate of the handkerchief*, because, say the supporters of this orthography, it was through it that the inhabitants of the Red Sea received the *handkerchiefs* of India. Others, and apparently with more propriety, write Bab-el-Mandeb, or the gate of tears, alluding to the dangers of the navigation, which induced the old Arabians to consider as dead, and to wear mourning for all who had the boldness to hazard the passage through it into the ocean.

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general whitish. Others derive it from Edom or Idumea, the ancient names of Upper Egypt washed by the sea, which signifying red, they suppose to have been given it from the reddish colour of the shore. The modern Arabian name is *Bahr Suph*, Sea of Algæ, from the quantity of these plants that cover the rocks.*

At its head the Red Sea forms two gulfs: the western is named the Gulf of Suez, the *Heroopolites sinus* of the ancients, and the Bahr-el-Kolzum, or Bahr-el-Suez of the Arabs. The eastern gulf of Akaba is the ancient *Ælanites sinus*, and the Bahr-el-Ailah of the Arabs. The tract which separates these gulfs is named the Desert of Sinai, into which Moses led the children of Israel.

It seems certain, that the Red Sea formerly extended several miles farther to the north than it does at present; it now heads about four miles above Suez, and beyond this running ten miles to the north, is a depressed tract, the level of which is thirty-five feet below that of the sea, and which is only kept from being overflowed by an elevated ridge

* The sea of Arabia was called by the ancients *Mare Erythræum*, and this name was also extended to the Indian Sea before it received that of *Oceanus Indicus*. Quintus Curtius after observing that the Ganges empties itself into the Erythræan Sea, adds, "Mare certe quo (India) alluitur ne colore quidem abhorret a ceteris. Ab Erythra rege inditum est nomen: propter quod ignari, rubere aquas credunt."—Lib. viii. chap. 9. "The sea washing India varies not from other seas. It derived its name from King Erythros; on which account the ignorant believe the water to be red."—Pratt's translation.

The weed named *suph* by the Hebrews, is of a red hue between scarlet and crimson; it abounds in the Gulf of Suez.

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ridge of sand. The soil of this sunk basin is sea sand and shells; and it has several shallow ponds of salt water. The dessication of this basin is accounted for by supposing the waves to have accumulated a bar of sand, which, at length, rising above the level of the sea, a lake was formed. The waters of which have been carried off by evaporation.

It is generally thought, that the Red Sea is thirty-four feet more elevated than the Mediterranean; hence, it would follow, that if the Isthmus of Suez was cut through, the waters of the Red Sea would rush with rapidity into the Mediterranean, while those of the Atlantic running in through the Strait of Gibraltar, an accumulation and concussion would take place, the consequences of which are incalculable. And even supposing the levels of the two seas to be the same, as there is no tide in the Mediterranean, and a very strong one in the Red Sea, this would alone cause a great body of water to flow from the latter into the former, if the isthmus was broken.

The tides in the Red Sea are very considerable, its entrance facing the east, and there being no rivers to counteract the stream. The winds considerably affect the tides; and it is not uncommon, in strong north westers, for the bottom to be left entirely dry on the ebb, between Suez and the opposite shore.

The monsoons, which are strong and regular in the open sea of Arabia, are subject to variations

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in approaching the land. In the gulf of Socotra their direction is usually from the east, between October and May, and from the west the other six months; while, within the Red Sea, they blow directly up and down, but with this variation, that the S.E. winds blow without intermission in the lower part of the sea, from October to June, when the northerly winds begin and continue for four months. Towards the head of the sea, in the gulf of Suez, northerly winds, on the contrary, prevail for nine months, and blow with great violence. The causes of these variations are evidently the positions of the sea of Arabia and the Mediterranean, with respect to the Red Sea. Thus the monsoon, which is from the east in the gulf of Socotra, changes to the S.E. and S.S.E. in the Red Sea, from this sea lying in a direction S.E. and N.W.; and is of longer continuance, from the atmosphere of the sea of Arabia being for a great part of the year colder than that of the Red Sea. For a similar reason N.W. winds are of longest duration at the head of the sea; for the denser air of the Mediterranean is almost constantly flowing towards the more rarified atmosphere of the desert of Suez and Red Sea, and this cause is strongest in the months of June, July, and August, when the presence of the sun has most raised the temperature of these latter; hence N.W. winds blow with great violence towards the head of the sea during these months.

Though these monsoon winds prevail with great regularity in the middle of the sea, close to the shores

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shores there are, throughout the year, land and sea breezes; but they cannot be taken advantage of in navigating this sea, by reason of the reefs which line the shores, obliging ships to keep at too great a distance during the night to profit by the land wind. The currents mostly run with the wind.

We have no knowledge of a single stream of fresh water reaching the Red Sea. The river Farat, laid down in the charts on the African coast, nearly opposite Judda, is probably only a creek. The Arabian coast is lined by a chain of mountains throughout its whole extent, whose base is from ten to thirty leagues from the sea; the intermediate space being an arid sea sand, totally deprived of fresh water, and naturally producing only a few herbaceous plants, such as the *mesembryanthem, euphorbia, stapelia, coloquintia, &c.* This barren waste, however, abounds with antelopes and other game; and immediately beyond it the scene suddenly changes to an exuberant vegetation, and a profusion of spring water.

All the shoals in the Red Sea are composed of coral, which is in such abundance, that travellers have, with their usual exaggeration, compared its bottom to a vast submarine forest. Towards the entrance of the sea fish is much more abundant than towards its head; and the beaches of the island Perim are frequented by the green and other species of turtle. The pearl and other oysters are also found here, besides several of the

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tropical species of shell fish. The most common sea birds are, gulls, and the fishing hawk.

The climate of the Red Sea differs essentially at its extremities. At Mocha, with the exception of a few light showers about Christmas, rain is unknown; and the thermometer, in July and August, rises to 112° during the day, and never descends below ninety at night. The dews are, throughout the year, extremely heavy.

African Coast. Abyssinia.

The African coast of the Red Sea is divided into Abyssinia, Baza, and Upper Egypt. The coast of Abyssinia, being generally avoided by ships navigating in this sea, was very imperfectly known until the visit of Lord Valentia in 1804. It is now found to possess several good ports, but also to be of dangerous approach in several places from reefs and islands. From Ras Firmah, the north point of Asab Bay, on which is the negro town of Asab (*Sabæ*), to Ras Rattah or the Sister Hills, there are several curvatures and good anchorage.

Annesley Bay is three leagues and a half deep and the same width, having the large island of Valentia before it. Massowah Bay has the town of Arkekow (*Adulis*) on its southern shore, before which is anchorage sheltered from all winds except those between east and north. The town of Massowah is on a small island, with some fortifications, the houses of reeds lined with mats. This is the principal trading place of Abyssinia, and provisions are abundant but dear. The island has no

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no water but what is preserved in cisterns from the rains, and this not being sufficient, boats are constantly bringing this article from Arkekow.

On the coast of Baza is Port Mornington, (*Epitherus* or *Ferrarum*) a safe and very capacious harbour, formed by a chain of islands stretching across the entrance of a bay. Provisions are plenty here but the water is brackish. Bother'em Bay, is so named from the intricacy of the channels in amongst the islands and shoals. From hence to Salaka the shore is rocky and lined by a reef, parallel to it at the distance of two leagues, with a deep channel within it. Suakin is a large and good port, the entrance being through a breach in the reef, not more than the one-twelfth of a mile broad; the town which was, at the period of the arrival of the Portuguese, one of the richest and most commercial cities of the east, is now a heap of ruins, and its existence only preserved by the caravans of pilgrims which come here from the interior of Africa on their way to Mecca. Bullocks, sheep, fowls, vegetables, and tolerable water are to be procured here. Mirza Sheik-Baroud is another small port, entered through a narrow channel in the reef. It has ten and twelve fathoms water. From hence there is thought to be no passage through the outer reef as far as Salaka, it being a continued chain of rocks. Cape Calmez is the ancient *Mnemium promontory*, and from hence to Ras el Giddid several shoals extend along the coast. Abiad or Aidhab is said to export a considerable quantity of cotton and ebony.

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African Coast. Upper Egypt.

ebony. Cape Komol is the ancient *Baxium* promontory, and Foul Bay, the *Sinus Immundus*; but all this extent of coast is very imperfectly known, being always avoided by European ships. Ras el Ans or Cape Nose, is the N.E. point of Foul Bay; S.E. of the cape is the island of Gebel Macour, or Emerald Mount.

Cossire (*Philoteras portus*) is a very indifferent road, being exposed entirely to the east and not having room for more than four or five ships: landing is also inconvenient from the shoalness of the water. The country round is composed of sand hills, and with no other vegetation than a very few coloquintias; the only good water is nine leagues distant from the town, and costs twenty to thirty paras the skin of five or six gallons. The water of a well, four or five leagues distant, is that commonly used; but it is very brackish. The French also while here dug a well a little distance S.W. of the town, in the bed of an occasional torrent, which supplied 600 men with water, but contained a great quantity of sulphate of lime. The position of Cossire at the entrance of several vallies running into Egypt, and being but 100 miles distant from the Nile, has caused it to be at all times chosen as the entrepot of commerce between Arabia and Egypt, exchanging the coffee, gums, pepper, and India productions brought from the former, against the corn and flour of the latter. The principal inhabitants are only temporary residents, being Arab merchants who quit it when their affairs are terminated; the fort

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fort is a square building of stone on the summit of a sand hill.

Suez is a modern and a poor place, being ruined by the cessation of commerce during the occupation of Egypt by the French.* It is situated on an inlet filled with banks, which dry at half tide, and crossed by a bar two miles and a half below the town, with but ten or eleven feet high water: inside the depths between the banks are eight and nine feet at low, and fifteen to sixteen feet high water springs. This forms a kind of inner harbour, in which the country vessels lay when they require careening, which is done in a cove or basin at the back of the town. The water used by the inhabitants and shipping is brought on camels from wells to the east of the town at a considerable distance. The ruins of *Clysma* are visible in a mount of rubbish south of Suez, now called Kolzum.

The Arabian coast of the Red Sea includes Yemen or Tehama, and Hejaz. The coast from Cape Babelmandeb, at the entrance of the strait, to Mocha is clean and bold-to; but from this to the north it is lined with reefs within, and through which the Arab vessels sail by day only. *Arabian Coast.* *Yemen.*

Mocha (*Musa*), fourteen leagues within the strait,

* In 1783, twenty-eight large ships from Judda conveyed 100,000 quintals of coffee to Suez.—See Vol. II. note H.

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Arabian Coast. Yemen.

strait: the coast is low with high inland mountains, the soil an arid sand without a blade of verdure, except about four miles within the strait, where is a mangrove swamp, which affords wood for burning; a few melancholy date trees are also near Mocha. This town has a handsome appearance from the sea, the numerous minarets giving it a deceitful appearance of grandeur. In reality it is but a miserable place, the buildings being all of sun dried bricks, with a wall round it of hewn stone, about fifteen feet high towards the sea and thirty towards the land, and which on the latter side is its only defence; but towards the sea, at the north and south extremities of the wall, is a pitiful fort: in short, half a dozen gun-boats and 100 men would find little difficulty in carrying the town by assault. The road is very safe, being sheltered on the south by a bank; vessels anchor a mile off shore in four fathoms and a half. The bay abounds in fish and crabs, which grow to the weight of four pounds. Provisions are cheap and abundant, but the water is very bad; the nearest wells are three miles from the town, and their water is so salt as to be drinkable only by the Arabs. Some better wells are about six miles distant, but there is no real good water nearer than five leagues, from whence it is brought on asses, in goat skins and bags, and sold in the market by the pint or glass. The population of Mocha is 10,000 Arabs, 2,000 Jews who inhabit a miserable village outside the town, and about 100 Gentoos from Hindostan, who are the factors of the Europeans

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Europeans that trade here: they are forbidden to bring their women with them. Mocha is governed by a Dola, or lieutenant of the King of Sana. Arabian Coast. Yemen.

From Mocha the shore is lined with reefs of coral, within which the Arab vessels sail in the day time. Dennis Bay, in about 14° 35′, is according to the French, a safe road with a watering place. Hodeida is a considerable town and the sea port of Betelfakie, from whence a great quantity of coffee is shipped. Cape Israel is a long projecting point, with a bay on the north sheltered by the island of Camaran.* Loheia is at the north extremity of this bay, and is a large town without walls, but with several towers guarded by soldiers; some of the houses are of stone, but the greater number are of mud thatched. The shore is here so shoal that ships cannot anchor nearer than two leagues to the town, and even boats cannot approach it at low water: it has, however, a share of the coffee trade. Ghesan and Attui are towns farther north. Camfida (*Hejaz*) is a considerable town, ten leagues north of which is Bender Dodja, where there is said to be good water. From hence to Cape Ibrahim the land is high with some small towns little known to Europeans.

Judda, the sea-port of Mecca, which is forty miles inland, is a large town with an extensive trade, as well with Europeans from India as with other

* The French, some years since, applied to the government of Loheia, to be permitted to establish a factory on this island.

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Arabian Coast. Hejaz. other parts of the Red Sea, particularly Cossire, Suez, and Tor. The harbour is formed by a great number of reefs, and the anchorage is three miles from the town. The town of Judda is tolerably built, most of the houses being of the stone which composes the reefs (*madrepore*), and being placed on ground rising from the sea it has a handsome appearance. It is governed by a Vizier from Mecca.

The places in succession from Judda, of which we have any knowledge, are YAMBO (*Jambia*), by the Arabs called Jembo el Bahr; it is the port of Medina, a day's journey inland, and is a considerable town, but partly in ruins, with a harbour between two reefs, but very contracted. The land over it is extremely high and rugged. It is a general rendezvous of the Arab vessels bound to and from Egypt, but is never visited by European ships, the natives being treacherous and inhospitable. Bareedy harbour, also formed by shoals, is fourteen leagues farther north.

Arabia Asiat. Ras Aboo Mahomet (*Pharan promont.*) is the extremity of the peninsula that separates the gulfs of Akaba and Suez; it is a very low sandy point, but with deep water close to it, and behind the point a chain of high hills runs through the peninsula to Mount Sinai. Before the centre of the entrance of the Gulf of Akaba, and north of Cape Mahomet, is the island Tiran, elevated in the middle. On the east shore of the entrance of the gulf is Calai el Moatlah (*Phenicum oppidum*), a large town, whose inhabitants have the name of great

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great robbers, and this gulf is infested by pirates. Arabian Coast.
Near its head is Calaat el Akaba* (*Ælana*), from whence the gulf has received its name.

The Gulf of Suez is entered between Ras Mahomet and the island of Shadwan, the channel being four leagues wide. Tor, the *Elim* of the Scripture, and the *Phenicon* of the Romans, is now a wretched village, inhabited by about 100 Greeks, and a few Arab fishermen. The ruins of a well-built Turkish fort denote it to have formerly been of more consequence. The description of this place given in the Bible, perfectly answers to its appearance at this day, except that three only of the twelve wells are now to be seen, about 200 yards from the beach, and the only verdure is two small clumps of date trees. The water of the wells is less brackish than that of Mocha or Judda, but is in very small quantity, and is only freshened by filtration through the sand of the beach. There are no kind of refreshments except fish, and they are far from abundant, to be procured here. The foot of the ridge of hills which runs through the peninsula is about a day's journey, or six leagues from Tor. Amongst them Mount Sinai raises its lofty head in two peaks, and to the religious mind recalls the scenes described

* El Akaba, i. e. the end (of the sea), Volney thinks it may be the *Atsium Gaber* of the Bible, which, as well as Ailah on the same gulf, which still retains its name, was a celebrated mart in the time of Solomon. Being in the possession of the Bedouin Arabs, who have no idea of commerce, they are never visited. El Akaba is said to be a Turkish fort, and to possess good water.

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Arabian Coast. cribed by the sacred historian; it is a vast mass of red granite with white spots. In the little dispersed spots of soil, almonds, figs, and vines are cultivated, and numerous rills of excellent water gush from the crevices, and wander among these little gardens; at its foot is a monastery of Greek monks. The coasts of this peninsula are lined with coral reefs, and covered with petrifactions. The road or harbour of Tor is perfectly safe, being sheltered by reefs running off from the points of a semi-circular bay, having a channel a mile and a half wide.

Cape Jehan is eight or nine leagues N.W. of Tor, and about west from the peaks of Mount Sinai.

A mere enumeration of the vast number of islands and reefs, above and under water, scattered throughout the Red Sea, would be equally useless and tedious, we shall therefore confine ourselves to the notice of those which are most conspicuous and best known.

On the African shore are Dhalac Island, seven leagues long, with many islands and reefs near it. St. John's Island, five or six leagues S.E. of Emerald Island, has a high hill at the S.E. end. Shadwan, at the entrance of the gulf of Suez, is a large and high island.

Nearest to the Arabian shore is the island Babelmandeb, Perim, or Mehun, ancient *Diodiri*, three miles and a half from Cape Babelmandeb, and forming the lesser strait. It is four miles in circuit,

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cuit, of little elevation, but highest in the middle; it is covered with large loose masses of black stone, except in some spots, where a thin sea sand covers a coral rock, and exceeds even in sterility the neighbouring continent, a few aromatic plants, and a prickly and leafless shrub of the milky tribe, being the only vegetables: and even these are in so small a quantity, that if the whole were collected they would not make a fire sufficient to dress a dinner. The attempts of the English to procure fresh water on the island, by digging wells, were fruitless. A few small lizards are the only stationary animals found on the island, but in the season of incubation it is resorted to by vast numbers of gulls to breed; its beaches are also frequented by green turtles in December and January. Though no vestige of habitations is seen on the island, it was evidently once resorted to, a cistern to hold water, built of stone and coated with mortar, still remaining perfect: it is possible this was a work of the Portuguese, when in 1513 they made an unsuccessful attack on Aden. A great number of granite bullets were also discovered by the English, in the water near the island.

On the N.W. side of the island is a very snug harbour, nearly land-locked, for about four ships.

The Arroas are N.W. eleven leagues from Mocha, nearly midway between the Arabian and Abyssinian coasts; the great Arroa is elevated. Gebel Zeghir, five leagues north of the Arroa, and six leagues from the Arabian coast, is high, with three small islands on its north side.

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The Sabugar islands extend from latitude 15° to 15° 10′; they are high, rocky, and barren: the largest, named Gebel Zebayr, has two conical hills. Gebel Tar is of considerable height, as its name denotes,* with a volcanic peak. Dooharab, a small low island in 16° 15′, covered with trees.

We shall here take occasion to offer a short sketch of the Arab character and manners. In their persons the Arabs exceed the middle size, but are generally thin; they are excellent horsemen, expert in the use of the lance and matchlock, and generally brave. The wandering tribes, named Bedouins, are robbers by profession, and *honestly* avow their trade, while the Arab of cities, less candid, is equally a robber by extortion. The Arabs, however, possess the virtue of hospitality to strangers who demand their protection, and the eating together is the seal of safety from the Bedouin to his guest.

The towns of the Arabs are built of stone or sun-dried bricks. The houses have two stories, with terraced roofs; the front is occupied by the men and the back by the females, who are strictly guarded from the eyes of strangers, for which purpose even the tent of the Bedouin is divided by a screen. The Arabs are abstemious in their diet, the common class making only one meal a day of *doura*, a species of millet, with milk or oil.

The

* *Gebel*, mountain—*Tar*, high.

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ARABIA.

The most remarkable cape on the south coast of Arabia, after that of Babelmandeb, is St. Antonio, or *Arimora* of the Arabs, sixteen leagues distant. The coast between is low. Cape Aden, nineteen leagues from Cape St. Antonio, is high and craggy, making like an island, having a deep bay on the west side, and another on the east.* On the latter is the once celebrated city of Aden, which from its great commerce received the name of *Arabia Emporium*, and which previous to the discovery of the passage to India round the Cape, had 100,000 inhabitants. It is now a heap of ruins, with a few mud hovels, inhabited by about 1,000 Arabs and Jews; it is situated in a valley between two lofty and barren hills, the opening of which towards the sea is about a mile wide, and was formerly crossed by a wall, one gateway of which alone remains. Towards the land the hills converge to a narrow chasm, which was closed by massy gates covered with iron plates: one of these gates still remains, and is the only defence on this side against the Bedouin Arabs. A few iron guns placed on heaps of stones, and some insignificant works on a little islet, are its defence towards the sea. The water used by the inhabitants, is procured from wells, 180 feet deep,

 and

* On approaching this part of the coast, high mountains, surmounted by craggy precipices, rocky, rugged, and confused, present the appearance of total sterility.

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and is nevertheless brackish: it is brought to the boats by Jews in leathern bags. On the bay west of Cape Aden (or Back Bay) better water is to be procured. Poor beef, some fruits, and fire wood, are the only articles of consumption to be had here.

In the space from Aden to Cape Morebat there is no place of shelter, and consequently it is seldom visited. The shore is in general elevated, rocky, and without islands or reefs. The bays in succession are Caria Canim, fifty leagues from Aden. Maculla Bay, six leagues farther, is two leagues deep and five wide, and affords anchorage sheltered between E.N.E. and N.W. There is a town at the head of the bay, but both provisions and water are scarce here, and the inhabitants are said to be unfriendly to strangers. Shahar is a town between two hills, thirteen leagues east of Maculla, there being several villages between them. Between Shahar and Cape Bogathusa, or Bogatshua, the land is very high, and the depth fifty to sixty fathoms, two leagues off shore. Between this Cape and Kisseen, Kesem, or Keschin Point, the shore is low, with a sandy beach and many villages, but the inland country is high. The Asses Ears,* are two peaks near the point, east of which is a bay with the towns of Kisseen, Durga, and Sherwin. About a mile west of the former is a well, which is the only place where water

* This name is frequently given by seamen to mountains having two abrupt peaks.

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water can be procured: there is anchorage at the head of the bay, sheltered from S.W. to north; the inhabitants are said to be hospitable.

Cape Fartash is a high promontory, that may be seen twenty leagues. Dofar (Hammee Badgeree of the natives) is fifty-two leagues from this cape; it is an Arab village, where neither provisions nor water can be procured, and the natives appear timid and shy. Morebat Bay, of which the cape of the same name is the south limit, is sheltered from the easterly monsoon. The town is only composed of a few huts, where some lean bullocks, goats, and fowls, have been procured by the ships that have touched here.

Cape Monteval is a high double cape, the two points of which are four or five leagues distant from each other. It is the S.W. limit of the Gulf of Curia Muria, of which Cape Chansley, or Kanseli, is the N.E. In this gulf are the Curia Muria islands, seven leagues from the main, high and very barren: the first is named Halki; Sardi, the second; Halabi, the third and largest; Deriabi, the easternmost. Two or three leagues N.E. of Halabi, is Redondo, a round island.

Cape Isolette is high, with a remarkable rock on the highest part resembling a building; a range of shoals extend from this cape to Mazeira island. This latter is twelve or fourteen leagues long, N.N.E. and S.S.W. There is a ship channel between it and the main, but rendered dangerous from banks. North of it is little Mazeira.

Cape Ras-al-gat, properly Ras-al-ilhad (*Syagra*)

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is forty leagues from Mazeira Island: the coast between is generally high and barren, and never visited by European ships. The cape is the eastern point of Arabia, from whence the coast lays N. W. by W. into the Gulf of Muscat. The coast to the latter place is extremely barren, but has several villages, and the considerable town of Soor or Zoar. Beyond this is Cape Kuriat, or Ras Badaud, which is easily known by a deep gap in the land, two leagues to the south, and eleven from Muscat, called by seamen the *Devil's Gap*, from the violent gusts of wind that blow through it. This coast abounds in provisions, which are brought off by the natives to ships passing the villages.

Muscat (*Moscha portus*) is the most considerable trading town of Arabia, and is subject, as well as all the coast to Cape Rasalgat, to an independant prince, named the *Imaum;* who is himself one of the principal merchants, having, at least, fifty trading vessels, built after the English model in India. The port is a little cove, half a mile long, and half that breadth, surrounded by high land on the south and west, and having on the east a high island, joined by rocks to a peninsula, on which is the town, the entrance being to the north. It can contain sixty vessels of moderate size, the greatest depth being six fathoms. The entrance is protected by a fort on each side, and another fort commands the inside of the cove. The town on the land side has a wall, beyond which is a sandy plain, bounded on all sides by rocky precipices, through which there are but three

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three narrow passes. The streets of Muscat, according to the usual Asiatic stile, are very narrow, and the houses mean. It has however an excellent bazar covered in, and though the country presents towards the sea only a heap of black, rugged, and barren rocks, the inland country affords abundance of bullocks, sheep, fowls, vegetables, and fruits, as well as rice; fish is so abundant, that it forms the chief food of the people. Ships are watered from a reservoir, into which the water is conducted from a considerable distance inland, and is very good. The Muscat vessels, named trankies,* trade to Surat and Bombay, the passage with the monsoon being only ten to twelve days; they also trade to the Red Sea, and to all the ports of the Persian Gulf. The Imaum of Muscat resides at Burka, fourteen leagues farther west.

From Burka to Cape Mussendom, or Musseldom, the coast is seldom visited by Europeans: it is said to have many villages, and the considerable town of Sohar. Cape Mussendom (*Asaborum* or *Maceta*) the southern limit of the Strait of Ormus, is on an island, the separation of which from the main is not seen sailing past it.

* The tranky is about the size of a peterboat, sharp at both ends, very broad in proportion to its length. The planks are not nailed but sewed together, and covered with a thick coat of bitumen: the sails are cotton canvas.

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THE PERSIAN GULF.

The Gulf of Persia (*Sinus Persicus*) is entered from the Gulf of Muscat, through the Strait of Ormus, which, between Cape Mussendom and Cape Bambaruck on the Persian shore, is eleven leagues wide. This gulf differs from the Red Sea in being almost entirely free from coral reefs, though it has many islands. It is beyond the limits of the monsoons, but the position and nature of the neighbouring countries produce periodical winds, which blow up and down the gulf as in the Red Sea, N.W. winds prevailing for nine months, from October to July, and S.E. the other three months. The former is called by the Arabs *shimaul*, and the latter *shurquee*. For about forty days, commencing at the middle of June, the N.W. wind blows with great violence, and is called the *grand shimaul*. In March and April these winds also blow very strong for about twenty days without intermission; and at this time the current sets strong up the gulf against the wind. During the period of the prevailing S.E. winds, hard, but transient gales from the S.W. are sometimes experienced towards the entrance of the gulf. The currents are observed to run into the gulf from May to September; and out, during the rest of the

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the year. In the middle of the gulf the current generally sets down, but is weak: along the shores small tides prevail.

The prevailing winds in the Persian Gulf seem to depend on the nature of the neighbouring countries, and the position of the gulf N.W. and S.E. To the S.E. and east are the Arabian Sea and the sandy deserts of Persia, the atmosphere of which must be more rarified for a greater part of the year than that to the north and N.W. where are the Black and Caspian Seas and the cold Caucasus,* hence N.W. winds prevail the greater part of the year, and are strongest in the summer months, when the air to the south is most rarified by the sun, being vertical, and by the melting of the northern snows and ices, producing a stream of condensed air.

In the Persian Gulf are many springs of fresh water in the sea, particularly one near the Isles of Bahrein.

The Persian Gulf receives at its head the united waters of the two great rivers, Tigris and Euphrates, which have both their sources in the Mountains of Caucasus, between the Caspian and Black Seas. The Tigris has its name from the rapidity of its stream, which is compared to the flight of an arrow. Their junction takes place at Korna, thirty leagues above Bussora, and the united

* In the winter months the high lands, north of Bushire, are covered with snow; and ice is to be had at the latter place for nine months of the year.

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united waters take the name of the *Shat-al-Arab* (River of the Arabs) to the sea, into which they empty themselves, amongst banks, by several mouths; of which the western one alone is navigable by ships, and is distinguished from the others by the branches of date trees floating out of it with the stream: its greatest depth is twenty feet, and for twenty-five leagues from its mouth it is free from banks. The other branches are only navigable by boats. The land at the mouth of the river is so low that the date trees are the first objects seen, and in general these trees cover the banks up to Bussora, with a few interspersed patches of rice ground. Vessels of seventy tons go from Bussora to Bagdad; these vessels, from the scarcity of wood, are composed of pieces of every size and species, from the size of a barrel stave upwards, and the whole is covered with dammer,* an inch thick, which keeps them from leaking.

The Arabian coast of the gulf, from the Strait of Ormus to Aftan river, 400 miles, is occupied by the Jochassim pirates, whose chief places of rendezvous are Ejmaum, a small town and good port, and Noseilkam, ten leagues from Ejmaum. The Sheik of Julfar, whose territory is outside the gulf, on the west of Cape Mussendom, has also a number of pirate dows, mounting four to eighteen guns; but the most powerful of these piratical chiefs

* A species of resin used in India instead of pitch.

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chiefs is the Chaub, whose capital is Durac (thought to be the *Siwa* of Alexander), on the east bank of the Euphrates.

Arabian Shore.

The west shore of the Persian Gulf is always avoided by European ships, and consequently is little known. For a distance of sixty leagues from Cape Mussendom there is not known to be any place of shelter. Ras-el-Khima is a large pirate town, on a sandy peninsula, and is, comparatively with other Arab towns, strongly fortified with batteries and towers. In 1809 the British Indian government determined to chastise those pirates, who had long committed depredations on the English trade, and even captured some of the company's vessels of war, treating the crews with great cruelty; an expedition was consequently sent from Bombay, and their capital, El Khima, was taken by assault, and the fortifications destroyed, together with seventy of their piratical dows. A considerable plunder fell into the hands of the captors, whose loss was only one officer killed, and four men wounded. In latitude about 25°, is a place called Seer, with the island Zare to the west; the Pearl Bank is thought to commence here, and extends along the coast to latitude about 27°. There are many insignificant towns on the coast, from which the pearl fishery is carried on. The most considerable are Lahsa, on Aftan river; Farut, celebrated for its grapes; El-Katif, supposed to be the ancient Gerra, built of salt stone, and where the ruins of a Portuguese fort are seen; Grain, Gran, or Koueit, is forty leagues from El Katif, the coast between is desert, and

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Arabian Shore.

with many islands. Gran is a town of mats and poles, with 10,000 inhabitants, engaged in the pearl fishery to a considerable extent. Here the East India Company's packets usually wait for the over-land dispatches from England.

Bussora, Bassora, Basra or Busra, called by the Arabs *Al Sure*, or the rocky, from the nature of the surrounding country, is a straggling Arab town, ninety miles from the sea, and one mile and a half from the west bank of the river of the Arabs. A creek runs from the river to the town, by which vessels of seventy tons ascend to the latter. The houses of Bussora are of sun-dried bricks, with terraced clay roofs, of a mean appearance; the streets narrow, and in wet weather the mud so deep that walking is impossible. The town is surrounded by a mud wall flanked with towers, but totally incapable of defence against European tactics. It has a Roman Catholic place of worship, subordinate to the grand vicar of Bagdad. Its bazars are extensive and abundantly supplied. The inhabitants are reckoned at 80,000, chiefly Arabs, governed by a Turkish pasha, subordinate to the pashalick of Bagdad.

The country round Bussora is a level plain, and except on the immediate banks of the river, without tree or shrub. The climate is not considered healthy; the summers are extremely hot, and the winters cold and wet: the extremes of the thermometer are 110° to 50°.

The trade of Bussora is very considerable, it being the principal emporium of the commerce between

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tween India and the Turkish dominions. Its proper exports are confined to horses to India, dates, and a little wheat and rice, to the ports of the gulf. The English East India Company have a factory here, composed of a resident, surgeon, a subaltern officer, and a few seapoys: the principal intention of which is to expedite the over-land dispatches between England and India. A Turkish admiral is stationed at Bussora, under the idea of checking the pirates; but his eight or ten armed vessels, the largest mounting fifty guns, are generally in so bad a state as to be unable to go out of port. *Arabian Shore.*

Cape Jasques, which forms the eastern side of the Strait of Ormus, has a square white perforated cliff, like a tower, projecting into the sea. East of the cape a river empties itself into the N.W. angle of Jasques Bay. Its mouth is crossed by a bar, with but seven or eight feet high water, and four fathoms and a half within.* *Persian Shore.*

Ascending the Persian shore of the gulf, the places of any note, in succession, are Mina, on the river Ibrahim. Gombroon, or Bender Abassi (Port of Abbas), was formerly a celebrated mart, but at present is nearly deserted, and in ruins. It is situated at the foot of a hill opposite Kismish Island, is unhealthy, and without water, but what is preserved in cisterns from the rains.

Kongon, or Kungoon, is a considerable town, with

* The Persian shore of the gulf, towards its entrance, is occupied by Arabs, generally independent of the Persian dominion, who subsist by navigation, fishing and piracy.

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Persian Shore. with some trade; the coast is here lined with stupendous mountains, rugged and barren. Cape Verdistan, or Burdistan, has a shoal running out from it three leagues to the south.

Bushire (*Bender Abou-scher*), the principal fort of the Persians in the gulf, is an ill built town of 1,200 houses, of white stone or sun-burnt bricks, surrounded by a wall with some bastions, merely sufficient to protect it from the insults of the Arabs. It is built on a point of land which is insulated in high tides. Vessels of ten feet draft run up the river to the town, but those of burthen cannot approach the river's mouth nearer than five miles. The water procured here is extremely brackish, though brought ten miles from the town. The remains of the Portuguese factory and castle are still to be seen, as are the ruins of Reeshire, a large town in the time of their power, four miles south of Bushire. The English East-India Company have a resident here. Its trade is considerable, being properly the seaport of Schiraz, with which it has a constant commercial communication by caravans, and from it Persia is principally supplied with India merchandize, for which it pays in specie.

The Gulf of Persia has several islands of note, of which the first towards the entrance is the celebrated Ormus, six miles long, and two leagues from Bender-Abassi. It is a totally barren rock, the low parts of which are covered with a crust of salt resembling snow. Its inhabitants are few, and chiefly subsist by collecting sulphur,

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sulphur, of which they furnish cargoes to some small vessels. They are dependent for fresh water on what is preserved in cisterns in the rains. Persian Shore.

Larak isle, a league S.W. of Ormus.

Kishmish (*Oaræta*), the largest island in the gulf, is twenty leagues long east and west, but not two broad; it is populous and well cultivated, producing wheat and other grain. On the east side is a good port named Congo, but fit only for small vessels; it has however a spring of excellent water, almost the only one in the gulf. Near the middle of the south side is Angar isle, three miles long, occupied by wild sheep and hogs.

Mamouth and Selim, also called Mamet and Salamet, Kaze and Nabajou, and by English seamen the tombs, the ancient *Aradus*, are two small isles three leagues from the west side of Kismish.

Poliore and Knobflore, also called Souri and Abou-mousa, are barren islets. Souri makes like a two masted vessel.

Kyen, or Keish* island, is low, fruitful, and inhabited.

Busheab, or Sheik-Saib, is of considerable size, well inhabited, and covered with date trees. On the east side is a town occupied by pirates.

Karek, or Kharedje (*Icarah*), north of Bushire, is three leagues long and two broad, has 1,500 inhabitants, and is tolerable cultivated, producing wheat, rice and barley; it abounds with goats, but

* The name of this island is variously corrupted in Cane, Quis, Kas, Gueas.

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but has few other animals. On the north are the ruins of a Dutch factory, established between 1750 and 1765. The island at present is subject to the Sheik of Bushire; on its south side is fresh water, convenient for shipping, who usually take pilots here for Bussora. In the centre of the island is a hill, with coral and sea shells on its summit, and courses of lava are observed on its sides.

The isles Bahrein, *Baha-reïn*, are, as their name signifies, two in number; they lie before Aftan river, five leagues from the main. The largest, named Anal by the Arabs, the ancient *Tylos*, is level, covered with date trees, and has a fortified town. The S.E., and smallest, is called Samak; they are celebrated for the great pearl fishery carried on near them; they are subject to the Sheik of Bushire.

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THE SOUTH COAST OF PERSIA.

The south coast of Persia, from being seldom visited, is consequently very little known to Europeans, and our materials for its description proportionably scanty. In general it is mountainous, the ridges at a greater or less distance from the sea; almost the only trees seen are the date; the land is generally dry and barren, and the water is scarce and bad. Janka, or Jasques river, has twelve feet at the entrance, and three miles up it are the ruins of a Portuguese factory, and some wells.*

Mekran, or Tiz, at the mouth of the Kurkeo, or Kurene, which forms its port, named Churbar, or Chewabad, is one of the best ports on this coast. The modern town is nothing more than a few straggling dwelling places of mats attached to poles; good water is, however, to be had here, as well as goats and sheep, but neither bullocks nor poultry. A small quantity of cotton, silk, and some shawls are exported from hence by the country vessels. The ruins of the ancient

* From Cape Jasques to Cape Guadel the natives call themselves Brodies, and from hence to Crotchy they take the name of Blochies; there is, however, no difference in their appearance.

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town of Mekran, where the Portuguese had a factory, are higher up the bay.

Bucker-bender is a small port in Guttar Bay, only worthy of notice as being one of the retreats of the pirate vessels of the Guzerat. Cape Guadel is on a peninsula of moderate elevation, with low lands on each side, but high mountains inland. The low isthmus was formerly crossed by a wall, which, as well as the town, built of stone, and some wells, are now entirely in ruins, and the few inhabitants dwell in mat houses close under the north side of the cape; they are chiefly weavers of coarse carpets and narrow checks. Water, goats, sheep, and fowls may be got here; and in its vicinity is the island Ashtola, whose sandy coves are frequented by turtles.

Songomaney, or Sommeany, is a poor town at the mouth of a river, with an old ruined mud fort.

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HISTORICAL ESSAY

ON THE

RISE AND PROGRESS

OF

THE EUROPEAN ESTABLISHMENTS

IN INDIA.

Regions of India.

UNDER the classical name of *India*, and the popular one of *East-Indies*, it is customary to comprehend two great regions of Southern Asia. The first including the countries between the Indus and the Ganges, or *Hindostan*,* the south extremity of which, from the Nerbudda on the west, and the mouths of the Ganges on the east, is called by Europeans the *Peninsula within* the Ganges, or the *Hither Peninsula*; and by the natives, the *Deccan*, or Country of the South.

The second region comprises the countries between the Ganges and China, and has received the name of the *Peninsula beyond* the Ganges, or the *Farther Peninsula*. In this region is also

 usually

* Hindostan, or Indostan, is derived from the river Hind or Scind of the natives *(Indus)*, whence also the name of *Hindoo*, the proper appellation of the native Indians improperly called *Gentoos* by the English, by a corruption of the Portuguese *Gentios*, Gentiles or Pagans.

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usually included the vast *Malay Archipelago*, extending to New Holland and New Guinea.

Ancient Communications.

From the most remote antiquity, a commerce was carried on between Europe and India, by routes which varied with the successive revolutions of empires. According to the *doubtful* authority of the priests of Egypt preserved by Diodorus, Sesostris, the Egyptian King, conquered the whole of India to the Ganges; but after his death, the Egyptians relapsed into their ancient unsocial system, which led them to hold maritime affairs in detestation, and many ages elapsed before Egypt again resumed its connection with India.

Among the various branches of the commerce of the Phenicians, that of India was the most lucrative. This people having made themselves masters of *Eziongeber* and other ports at the head of the *Arabic Gulf*, from thence held a regular intercourse with India and the east coast of Africa. At first the merchandize was conveyed direct by land from the ports of *Idumea* to Tyre, but the Phenicians having got possession of *Rhinocorura*, (El Arisch) the nearest port of the Mediterranean to the Arabic Gulf, the commodities of India were brought to this port, from whence they were sent by sea to Tyre.

The second route, which also seems to have existed from the most early times, was by the Persian Gulf through Messopotamia to the Mediterranean coasts of Syria and Palestine, and in order to facilitate this commerce, Solomon founded a city in an *Oasis* of the desert, whose Syrian name

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of Tadmar, and Greek one of Palmyra, denoted its situation among palm trees, and which rapidly increased in power and splendour, and maintained its independence until conquered by Aurelian, when trade forsook it, and at present a few miserable huts of Arabs are alone seen amidst the most magnificent ruins. Ancient Communications.

Besides these two routes by the Arabic and Persian Gulfs, two others by the Caspian and Black Seas also existed from a very remote antiquity. The first is not very clearly traced by the ancient writers, who seem to have confounded the *Ochus* which falls into the Caspian Sea, with the *Oxus* which falls into Lake Aral. Admitting this mistake, the route, according to Strabo, was as follows:—the productions of India being collected at *Patala* (Tatta), near the mouth of the Indus, ascended this river as far as it was found navigable, from whence they were conveyed by caravans to the *Oxus* (Gihon), where they were again embarked, and descended the river to its nearest approach to the *Ochus* (Tedjen), to convey them to which caravans were again employed. Descending the *Ochus* to the Caspian Sea, the merchandize crossed this latter to the mouth of the *Cyrus* (Kur) which was ascended to its nearest approach to the *Phasis* (Rioni), where caravans were a third time employed to convey the goods to *Sarapana* (Schoraban*) on this river, which was descended to the Black Sea.

* Now a heap of ruins in the kingdom of Imiretta.

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Ancient Communications.

An occasional deviation from this route seems to have taken place, thus the merchants at times following the course of the *Oxus*, arrived at Lake Aral, which they crossed, and transported their goods by land to the Caspian, on which embarking they arrived at the Wolga, which they ascended to its nearest approach to the *Tanais* (Don), to which latter, crossing by land, they descended it to the Sea of Azoph.

The fourth route, according to Strabo, was across the Caucasus from the Caspian to the Black Sea, but as camels could not be employed on these mountains, and he expressly says, they were made use of, it seems more probable that the caravans passed round by the north of the Caspian, which route was still frequented by the merchants of the middle ages.

Such were the tracks of communication between Europe and India when Alexander undertook his grand expedition for the conquest of the latter country. Observing the state of prosperity to which Tyre had arrived by her India trade, the Macedonian monarch determined to share in this traffic, and for this purpose, when he had become master of Egypt, he founded the city to which he gave his name, and which soon rose to a degree of splendour equal to that of Tyre in her most prosperous moment.

When the Greeks of Egypt had acquired the knowledge of the monsoons, instead of the tedious coasting voyages, a more direct communication with India took place. The merchants ascended

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ended the Nile from Juliopolis (about two miles from Alexandria) to Coptos, which they reached in twelve days; from hence they transported their goods by caravans to *Berenice*, a journey of twelve days more. Here they arrived in the middle of summer, and immediately embarking, reached the port of *Ocellis* (Ghella), on the east coast of Arabia Felix, in thirty days, from whence thirty days more navigation carried them to *Musiris* (probably Merjee) on the west coast of India. Some more intrepid navigators, it is probable, even doubled *Taprobane* (Ceylon), and ascended the Ganges to *Palibothra*, the most celebrated commercial city of ancient India.* The Egyptians returned from India with the N.E. monsoon, performing their voyage within the year. Ancient Communications.

The great mass of the commerce between India and Europe continued to follow the route of the Red Sea until the seventh century, when the conquest of Egypt by the Saracens, transferred it by the Black Sea to Constantinople.

The Venetians, as we have already seen,† prevailed on the Mamelukes, become masters of Egypt, to permit the renewal of the ancient route, and when De Gama displayed the Portuguese flag in the Indian Seas, Alexandria was the sole entrepot of Indian commerce.

* Patna, according to Major Rennel; Allahabad, according to Danville; and Rajahmaul, according to Mr. Wilford.

† Vol. II. page 393.

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Arrival of the Portuguese.

At the period of the arrival of the Portuguese in India, the west coast of Hindostan was divided between two great sovereigns, the King of Cambay and the Zamorin, each of whom was acknowledged lord paramount, by numerous petty princes.

The Zamorin's dominions included the whole coast from Bombay to Cape Comorin, of which Callicut was the capital, and one of the most commercial cities of India. De Gama, informed of its riches at Melinda, immediately proceeded thither, and was on the point of concluding a treaty of commerce with the Zamorin, when the insinuations of the Mahometan merchants caused that prince not only to change his favourable opinion of the Portuguese, but determined him to destroy them: this resolution, however, he had not the courage to execute, and De Gama returned in triumph to Lisbon. Thirteen vessels were immediately dispatched under Cabral to Callicut, where he found the Moors as little favourable to him as they had been to De Gama, and fifty of his people being massacred, in revenge he set fire to the town and all the ships in the port, and then proceeded to Cochin and Cannanore.

The kings of these places received him favourably, and with several other tributary princes, solicited his assistance in shaking off the yoke of the Zamorin. By these alliances, the Portuguese shortly acquired so great a preponderancy, as to give law to the whole coast, fixing their own prices on the productions of the country, and building

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building citadels in the chief towns. At the same time they also acquired a footing in the island of Ceylon.

In 1508, Alphonso Albuquerque arrived in India, as commander of the Portuguese. The first object of this great commander was to possess himself of a good harbour, and Goa being in every respect eligible, he attacked and took it with little difficulty; but being in want of provisions and closely besieged by the natives, he was again obliged to relinquish it and retire to his ships. In a few months he, however, appeared before it again, carried it by surprise, and fortifying it so as successfully to resist the attacks of the native forces, it became the metropolis of the Portuguese in India, from whence they spread their conquests and their commerce over the eastern seas.

The Venetians did not, however, surrender the trade of India without a struggle. Foreseeing that the successes of De Gama and his followers must, if not checked, annihilate their own commerce through Egypt, they left no means untried to throw obstacles in the way of the Portuguese.

Their emissaries were employed to persuade the Arabs of the Red Sea, that it was their interest to unite with them against a nation who had seized on the source of their mutual riches. The Sultans of Egypt, also, soon felt the consequences of the Portuguese voyages to India, in the reduced receipts of the transit duties, which they levied on

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on all the India merchandize passing through their dominions, and which formed a considerable portion of their revenues. The only means of recovering the trade, the Portuguese were thus ravishing from them, was by maintaining a superior fleet in the Red Sea; but its shores afforded not one necessary material for construction or equipment. The Venetians, however, obviated this obstacle, by sending these materials to Alexandria, from whence they were conveyed on the Nile to Grand Cairo, and thence by canals across the Desert to Suez; from which port, in 1508, four large ships and several smaller ones sailed for India.

The Portuguese had not, however, been unwatchful of the motions of the Venetians, and with the intention of counteracting them, had, in 1507, made themselves masters of the island of Socotra, which they falsely considered the key of the Arabian Gulf. The Egyptian fleet, however, made its way into the Indian Sea, and being joined by the fleet of the King of Cambay, attacked the Portuguese at first with some success, but the latter receiving reinforcements from Portugal soon regained the superiority to lose it no more. The Egyptian vessels that attempted to quit the Red Sea were driven back or destroyed; and, at last, the Portuguese were left the undisputed masters of its navigation.

At the same time that the Portuguese were thus securing the command of the Red Sea they did not neglect the Gulf of Persia. Ormus, on an island at its entrance, was then the capital of a powerful

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a powerful kingdom, extending on both shores of the gulf; and was, also, the entrepot of commerce between Persia and India, from whence the productions of the latter were conveyed to the Euphrates, and thence to the coast of Syria by Aleppo.* The Portuguese commenced their operations by pillaging and burning the towns depending on Ormus, in order to strike terror into the capital, and when they thought they had sufficiently succeeded, they summoned the king to become tributary to Portugal, as he was to Persia. This demand was, however, rejected, and the fleets of Ormus and Persia uniting, gave battle to the Portuguese; but, as might be expected, were totally defeated by a much inferior force: the consequence of which was permission to build a citadel to command both the ports of Ormus. A. D. 1514.

The command of the Red Sea and Persian Gulf being thus in the hands of the Portuguese, the commerce between India and Europe by these routes entirely ceased; and these enterprising intruders, secured from all competition on the western shores of India, turned their thoughts to conquests on the east.

Neglecting the Coromandel Coast, which possessed no ports, they passed on towards the supposed richer regions beyond the Ganges, and the Malay Peninsula, then believed to be the Golden Chersonesis

* This route by Aleppo succeeded to that by Palmyra, on the destruction of this latter city.

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Chersonensis of the antients, first fixed their attention. From the merchants of Surat they had heard of the wonderful riches of Malacca, and determined to share them: four ships accordingly sailed from Portugal, in 1508, for that city; but on their arrival they found the Malays entirely averse to any intercourse, and after several of their men were massacred they were obliged to return to Lisbon, without having established any commercial relations.

This check did not, however, make them relinquish their project, and, in 1510, a more powerful force was sent from Portugal to execute it. At Cochin, Albuquerque took the command of this fleet, consisting of nineteen ships and 1,400 troops, and proceeded to Malacca, of which after an obstinate defence he made himself master; and shortly afterwards received ambassadors from several princes of Sumatra, who desired to be received vassals of the crown of Portugal.

From Malacca the Portuguese dispatched a part of their squadron to the Molucca islands. This rich archipelago had remained hid from all but its own inhabitants until the middle ages, when some Chinese were driven on it by chance, and discovered the nutmeg and clove, spices unknown to the ancients, the taste for which quickly spread over the east, and from thence passed to Europe.

The Arabs, then the most adventurous navigators in the world, crowded to the Archipelago, and monopolised its productions, till the arrival of

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of the Portuguese, who overcoming the difficulties thrown in their way, shortly got a footing and built a citadel on Ternate, one of the principal islands.

The Portuguese now turned their views towards China, the natives of which traded to Malacca in their own vessels, and were admired for their politeness and humanity, qualities which the lowest of their sailors possessed in a far superior degree to the nobles of Europe, at that period. In 1518, a squadron was sent from Portugal, with an ambassador, to China; who, conducting himself with prudence and moderation was well received, and was on the point of concluding a treaty of commerce, when another Portuguese squadron appeared on the coast, the people of which, without permission, built a fort on the island of Taman, from whence they issued forth and plundered the Chinese vessels, violated their women, and carried off their men. The irritated Chinese equipped a powerful fleet, through which the Portuguese squadron with difficulty forced its way. The ambassador was thrown into prison where he died, and his nation was for several years excluded from China.

About the same period, the Portuguese commenced an intercourse with Sumatra. A chief of Paray, on the N.W. coast, being dispossessed by an usurper, solicited assistance from the Europeans, who reinstated him, after killing the usurper in a pitched battle; in return for this A.D. 1525. service,

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service, the restored prince consented to do homage to the crown of Portugal, and to grant to its subjects the monopoly of all the pepper produced in his territory, as well as permission to erect a citadel. The Portuguese did not, however, long retain their ascendancy in this island; a war having broken out between the prince their friend and the King of Achen, the former was conquered, and after some bloody contests, the Portuguese were obliged to evacuate their citadel and retire to Malacca. From this period, a sanguinary and exterminating, but still indecisive, warfare was carried on between the Portuguese and Achenese for a great number of years.

The Portuguese, after being for a considerable period shut out from China, at length gained permission to trade to the island of Sanciam, where they exchanged the spices of the Moluccas, and the precious stones and ivory of Ceylon for silks, porcelain, drugs, and tea. For some time they were obliged to content themselves with the privilege of trading alone, when, at length, an opportunity offered of forming a more solid establishment.

A Chinese pirate had made himself master of the island of Macao, from whence he infested the neighbouring coasts, and even besieged Canton. The Chinese demanding the assistance of the Portuguese, the latter sent a force from Sanciam, which obliged the pirate to raise the siege, and pursued him to Macao, where being entirely defeated,

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feated, he killed himself in despair; and for this service the emperor granted the island of Macao to the Portuguese.

From China we are now to follow these enterprising mariners to Japan. In 1542, a Chinese junk, bound from Siam to China, with three Portuguese passengers on board, was driven, by a storm, on the coast of Japan: the Portuguese being well received by the natives, gave such a description of this celebrated country, as roused the religious zeal of the missionaries, and the spirit of adventure in the merchants; and a number of both classes flocked to Japan, where they were both successful, the former in converting the Pagan natives, and the latter in establishing a trade for gold, silver, and copper, which they retained till 1638, when they were driven entirely from the Japanese dominions, in consequence of the intrigues of the Jesuits.

While the Portuguese were thus extending their power and commerce over Asia, they did not overlook the east coast of Africa, on which Arab colonies had been established for many centuries, particularly on the coast of Zanguebar, which afforded a great part of the gold that alimented the trade of the Arabs with India. The Portuguese could not contemplate without coveting this source of wealth, and in about 1508 they succeeded in subjecting the little Arab states, and on their ruins founded an empire, which still nominally exists, and extends from Sofala to Melinda, though there are many portions of this space that

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that do not acknowledge the Portuguese dominion.

Thus, in the middle of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese were masters of the east coast of Africa; of the coasts of Arabia and Persia; of the two peninsulas of India; of the Molucca Islands, and of the trade to China and Japan. Throughout this immense space their will was law, as well on the land as on the sea, while their despotism was such, that neither nations nor individuals dared to trade without their licence, and all the most lucrative branches of commerce they retained entirely to themselves, so that they regulated the markets of Europe and India at their pleasure.

So many advantages might be supposed sufficient to consolidate a power that no circumstances could overthrow; but those advantages had been the fruits of courage and virtue, which were no longer to be found among the Portuguese of India.

The abuse of riches, the intoxication of success, the vices and inability of their chiefs, and above all their distance from the mother country, and consequent independence of her control, had totally changed their dispositions. Religious zeal, which had at first tended to animate their courage, now only increased their cruelty, by teaching them to believe it meritorious to pillage, cheat, massacre, and make slaves of idolaters. They seized every vessel that presumed to spread her sails on the Indian seas without their permission, ravaged the coasts, insulted the native princes, destroyed

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destroyed the temples of their religion, and became the scourge and terror of Asia. Nor was it against the mild natives alone that their iniquities were directed; the inquisition was established at Goa, and whoever was unfortunate enough to be supposed rich, was too sure to become the victim of this infernal tribunal.

The establishments were at the same time divided and torn by factions; the tribute paid by 150 native princes, and every other branch of revenue, was squandered by individuals, so that sufficient was not carried to the public treasury to defray the expenses of the forts, and keep up the marine necessary to protect commerce. Effeminacy pervaded the army, the officers of which were surrounded by bands of dancing girls and concubines, and in short their manners were a strange mixture of avarice and prodigality, debauchery and devotion. Such was the degradation of the Portuguese nation in India, when Juan de Castro arrived as viceroy. The brilliant administration of this able chief for a short time arrested its downhill career, but it was too far gone to be recovered by the virtues or abilities of one man. The native princes at last, roused by their accumulated injuries, and encouraged by the supineness of their oppressors, united in a secret league to exterminate them; but unfortunately for the cause of humanity, their preparations were too dilatory, and reinforcements of the best troops of Portugal arriving, under the brave and prudent Ataide, a general attack made on the Portuguese establish-

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ments by the allied princes, in 1567, failed of success, and tranquillity was again for a while restored. A revolution at home, however, hastened the subversion of the Portuguese power in India, already so deeply undermined by the vices of its subjects.

A. D. 1580. On the union of Portugal to Spain, the establishments in the eastern world were divided into three separate governments, independent of each other, and consequently possessing different interests, and actuated by different views. Many of the Portuguese, conceiving themselves to have no longer a country, either turned pirates, or entered into the service of the native princes: every individual thought only of the speediest means of making his fortune, and manners had arrived at the acme of corruption, when two brave, free, prudent, and tolerant people, destined successively to succeed to the Portuguese power, first appeared in India.

Arrival of the Dutch. When the provinces of the Netherlands had succeeded in throwing off the Spanish yoke, the thoughts of the new republicans were naturally turned towards the acquirement of power and riches by commerce, as most congenial to their government, to the smallness of their territory, and to its local situation. Among other branches of trade which poured wealth into the ports of Holland was that of Lisbon; from whence the Dutch merchants procured the productions of India to resell them to all the nations of the north.

Philip

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Philip II. become master of Portugal, prohibited his new subjects from all commercial transactions with his enemies; and the Dutch, thus excluded from Lisbon, determined to seek the same objects at their source. Having, however, neither experienced seamen nor persons acquainted with the Indian commerce, and there being besides great danger in appearing on a far distant coast in the entire possession of an enemy, the first attempt to share in the India trade was by seeking a passage to China by the north, in which the English had already failed. While employed in this pursuit, with no better success, Houtman, a native of Holland, confined in the prisons of Lisbon for debt, proposed to the merchants of Rotterdam, to reveal to them his knowledge of Indian commerce, provided his debts were paid. His proposal being accepted an association was formed, by which four ships were equipped and sent to India, under Houtman, in 1594. The success of the first voyage extended only to procuring some pepper at Java, and establishing a friendly communication with the Javanese. On Houtman's return the association determined to form an establishment on this island, and secure the monopoly of its pepper. For this purpose a squadron of eight sail was sent out in 1598; and, after some difficulty, the Dutch got permission to trade, but were refused that of forming any establishment. Here they loaded four of their ships with pepper for Europe, and sent the rest to the Molucca Islands, from some of which the natives had already driven 1594.

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the Portuguese. The chiefs in several of the islands received the Dutch in a friendly manner, permitting them to establish factories, and load their ships with spices.

The success of this voyage created a general rage in the Dutch merchants to engage in so lucrative a branch of trade; and so many associations were formed, and the avidity with which they out-bid each other in the Indian markets was such, that they were all on the point of being ruined, when the government interfered; and, in 1602, united all the separate societies into one company, to which was granted all the powers of sovereignty over the establishments they might form in the Indian seas. Fourteen large and several smaller ships were immediately dispatched to India by the company; and before 1609 fortified factories were established at Java, and in the kingdom of Johore.

In 1607 the Dutch attempted to gain a footing in China, but were counteracted by the intrigues of the Portuguese missionaries. Determining to procure by force what was refused to solicitation, they seized several Chinese vessels; but a Portuguese squadron from Macao obliged them to quit the coast. Some years after they made an unsuccessful attack on Macao, and then established themselves on Fisher's Island; from which, however, they derived no advantage, as the Chinese of the continent were prohibited from holding any communication with them, and they were about to abandon the island, when, in 1624, they

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they were invited to Formosa. Here they formed an establishment; and shortly after, on the conquest of China by the Tartars, 100,000 Chinese emigrating to that island, introduced the industry and activity of their nation, and it became one of the first markets of Asia; its harbours being crowded with the vessels of China, Japan, Siam, Java, and the Philippines. An unforeseen event, however, destroyed the Dutch prosperity in this island in a few years. A Chinese adventurer, whose father had been put to death by his government, on pretence of revenging his murder, determined to make himself master of Formosa, from whence he could easily annoy the continent: he accordingly besieged the Dutch fort of Zealand, which he took in 1662; and from this time the Dutch have been obliged to trade to Canton on the same footing as the other nations of Europe.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century the Dutch first sent ships to Japan, and established a factory on an island near Firando. In 1601 they received permission to trade to all parts of the Japanese dominion; but, in 1619, this privilege was restrained. In 1638 they were ordered to destroy their factory at Firando, and three years after were deprived of their privileges, and confined to the artificial island of Decima, in the port of Nangasaki, and the trade laid under such restraints that it necessarily declined: the three annual ships were reduced to two; in 1770 to one and two alternately; and latterly, 1807, one an-

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nual ship only, of 1,500 tons, is sent from Batavia to Japan.

On their first arrival in the Indian Seas, the Dutch and Portuguese had only occasional skirmishes; but a sanguinary war soon followed, which, in the end, totally destroyed the Portuguese power. The latter people had in their favour the alliance of many of the native princes, whom fear kept in subjection, and the superior knowledge of the Indian seas, while the Dutch had to oppose to these advantages, the stimulus of their wants, the amor-patria which impelled them to every exertion that might tend to establish the still-disputed independence of their republic, and above all, the good faith and moderation by which they conciliated the natives.

The Dutch besides received continual reinforcements from home, while Spain, jealous of the prosperity of her newly acquired subjects, left the Indian settlements entirely to their own force. The balance of success was, however, long doubtful; but the perseverance and prudence of the Hollanders at length gained them the ascendancy. In 1661 the Portuguese lost Malacca; in 1658, after a two years bloody contest, they were driven from Ceylon; and two years after Macassar fell into the hands of the Dutch, who also dispossessed their rivals of Cochin, Cananore, and other settlements on the Malabar coast. In 1663 the Dutch had also, with the consent of the native princes, established factories at Negapatam, Sadras, Pulicat,

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cat, and Bimlipatam, on the east coast of the peninsula.

But while the Dutch were thus rapidly extending their commerce and their conquests, at the expense of the Portuguese, they were not without a formidable rival in the English, who were equally induced by their maritime situation and commercial spirit, as well as by their progress in navigation, to use every effort to share in the riches of the east; and the reformation, by abolishing papal jurisdiction, leaving them free from religious restraints, they quickly followed the Hollanders round the Cape of Good Hope. Arrival of the English.

Queen Elizabeth was the first English sovereign who seriously thought of procuring for her subjects a share in the Indian trade. In 1583 she granted introductory letters to the princes of India to two adventurers, Newberry and Filch, and others in 1596, to Allot and Bromfield, all of whom proceeded to the court of the Great Mogul by land, and were well received. 1583.

The attempts to discover a northern passage to China having failed, the English determined to share the riches of the east by boldly following the route of the Portuguese; and the 30th December, 1600, the Queen granted letters patent to a society of merchants of London, to trade to the East Indies. By this association a squadron was equipped; which, in 1602, arrived at Achen, to the king of which Lancaster, the commander, was the bearer of a letter from the Queen. Here the English met a friendly reception; and proceeding 1600.

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from hence to Java, established a factory at Bantam, loaded their ships with pepper, and returned to England.

The first expeditions of the English were entirely of a commercial nature, and the establishments they formed were with the consent of the native princes: such were Masulapatam and Calicut, where they had factories a few years after their first appearance in India. It was, however, soon found that this pacific line of conduct would never permit them to support the concurrence of the Portuguese and Dutch, who possessed fortified places and secure ports, while they were dependent for the bare permission to trade on the caprice of the native princes, possessed no harbours, and depended entirely on Europe for military succour; another mode of action, therefore, became necessary, and war and commerce were united. The English had attempted to gain admission to Surat in 1611, but were prevented by the Portuguese, who threatened to burn all the towns on the coast if they were received. The squadrons of the two nations at the same time met off Surat, and the English, under Middleton, were obliged to retire. The following year, Captain Best arriving off the same port with a stronger force, twice defeated the Portuguese fleet, though much superior; and in 1618 concluded a treaty of commerce with the Mogul, by which a free trade to all parts of his dominions was granted to the English. In the same year James I. sent an ambassador to Achen, who procured permission to establish a factory in that city, with

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with considerable commercial privileges; and between 1613 and 1629 the English had also formed settlements at Priaman and Ticoo, on the west coast of Sumatra; while the Dutch had established factories at Padang, &c. But both nations were shortly after driven entirely from the island by the King of Achen, now grown jealous of the encroachments of those new visitors.

Though, during the reign of James I. the English Company received little support from the government, by activity, perseverance, and the prudent choice of its servants, it had gradually acquired strength and solidity in India; when the Dutch, feeling that their own success depended on the ruin of their rivals, attacked them in every part of India; and as they now possessed the same advantages over the English, that the Portuguese did over them on their first arrival, it is not to be wondered at if they were every where successful.

After the Indian Seas had been dyed with the blood of both nations, the Dutch remained victorious; and would, probably, have entirely driven the English from these seas had not the companies at home interposed. One of the chief objects of contention between the two nations was the commerce of the Spice Islands, of which the English claimed a share. The companies, in order to accommodate this difference, concluded a treaty in 1619, by which the produce of these islands was to be divided between them in the proportion of two-thirds to the Dutch and one-third to the English, each contributing a like proportion towards the expenses of

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of the establishments. This treaty, however, did not satisfy the Dutch in India, and, on pretence that the English had formed a conspiracy against them, they seized all the persons of the English factory at Amboyna in 1622, and after inflicting unparalleled tortures on them, put them publicly to death. It is impossible to see in this atrocious massacre any thing but the effect of avidity without bounds, for it would be absurd to suppose that ten factors and eleven soldiers, the number of persons composing the English factory, should form a design to get possession of a fort garrisoned by 200 Dutch. The English King was, however, too deeply immersed in theological controversy to pay much attention to the rights of his subjects, and no vengeance was taken for the massacre of Amboyna, but the Dutch were permitted quietly to enjoy the fruits of their iniquity; and, in order to secure them more efficiently, they prevailed on the Kings of Ternate and Tidor, the two most powerful princes of the Moluccas, in consideration of the payment of £3,000 a-year, to cause all the clove and nutmeg trees in their respective islands to be destroyed annually. By this means the culture of the clove was confined to Amboyna, and that of the nutmeg to the Banda Islands, of which the Dutch had the entire and undisputed possession.

The affairs of the English still continued to decline in India, and the civil wars which deluged the mother country with blood during the latter part of the life of Charles I. accelerated their down-hill

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down-hill career, so that at the death of that ill-fated monarch, the East India Company was an empty shadow, and its trade reduced to insignificance.

Cromwell, irritated against the Dutch for assisting the unfortunate Stuarts, and affording an asylum to their proscribed adherents, commenced a maritime war against Holland, which was successful in every part of the world, and the republic was at length obliged to sue for peace. Though Cromwell might have dictated his own terms with respect to India, he contented himself with securing a free trade to the English, obliging the Dutch government to disavow the massacre of Amboyna, and to make some compensation to the descendants of the victims. The Island of Ron was also to be restored to the English; but from this island, which is little better than a rock, and without any harbour, the Dutch had previously extirpated all the nutmeg trees; nevertheless, the English returned to it, but were again driven from it by their rivals in 1666.

The security of its trade, however, restored the affairs of the English Company, which went on successfully for some years, until it received a check from a rivalry, to which that success had given rise. Charles II., whose sole object throughout his reign was to raise money for his dissolute pleasures, sold permission to private merchants to trade to India, in direct violation of the Company's charter, while he at the same time made the Company

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Company pay for permission to prosecute the interlopers; the natural consequence was a kind of civil war for some years between the two parties in the Indian Seas. The Dutch also still harrassed the English whenever an opportunity presented itself; and in 1682, by their intrigues, they procured the monopoly of the pepper of Bantam, and obliged the English to withdraw their factory from thence.

The English Company determined to revenge this aggression, and for that purpose fitted out a fleet of twenty-three vessels, on board which were embarked 8,000 troops, but at the moment this formidable armament was on the point of sailing, the King directed its departure to be postponed. Charles doubtless expected to receive a large sum from the Company to revoke his order, but being disappointed, he did not hesitate to sell the honour of the nation and the interests of his subjects to their enemies, and for the sum of one million sterling, paid him by the Dutch, the expedition was ordered to be entirely laid aside.

The English driven from Java, once more turned their views towards Sumatra, and in 1684 an envoy was sent from Madras to Achen, to demand permission to erect a fort there. This was, however, refused; but a free trade was granted them, and liberty to erect a wooden factory, which was immediately constructed.

While the English envoys were at Achen, the Rajahs of Priaman and other places on the west coast of Sumatra were there also, soliciting assistance

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tance of the Achenese against the Dutch, who had usurped their territories and otherwise injured them.

These chiefs seizing the idea of opposing the two European nations to each other, offered the English envoys the monopoly of their pepper, and the liberty to build forts, provided they would rid them of the Dutch. On this condition, a treaty was concluded between the Madras government and the Sumatra chiefs in 1685, and vessels were immediately dispatched to Sumatra, where the establishment of Bencoolen was formed. In spite of the intrigues of the Dutch, the English got a firm footing in the island, while the influence of their rivals declined, and at the close of the seventeenth century was almost entirely destroyed.

But while the English were thus extending their establishments on the east, they had nearly lost one of their chief settlements on the west. The expenses of the fleet which the Company had equipped to chastise the Dutch had so greatly exhausted its resources, that it was obliged to send its ships to India without funds, to procure cargoes on credit if possible, and from the good faith which had hitherto marked its dealings, merchandize to the value of £280,000 was thus procured. The means resorted to, to acquit this debt, were disgraceful to the English name, and were nearly productive of the total destruction of the English commerce in Western India. It appears that Sir Josiah Child, the Chairman of the Court of Directors, unknown to his colleagues, sent instructions

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structions to his brother, the governor of Bombay,* to make such demands of the Mogul government of Surat as he knew must be refused. These demands were accordingly made, and, as foreseen, were rejected with contempt, when Child, on pretence that this rejection was tantamount to a declaration of war, seized all the vessels belonging to the subjects of the Mogul, to an immense value. Aurungzebe, who then swayed the sceptre of Hindostan, lost no time in preparing to punish the authors of this unprovoked robbery. In 1689 his generals landed 20,000 men on the island of Bombay, defeated the English who opposed them, and obliged them to shut themselves up in the citadel, where they were closely besieged. Child, now as cowardly as he had before been treacherous, dispatched a deputation to the Mogul Emperor, to demand grace, and the English envoys were led into his presence with their hands tied behind them. The monarch, however, feeling the advantages that his subjects derived from their commerce with the English, was not inflexible, but after insisting on the dismission of Child, and on a compensation to his subjects who had been robbed, he restored to the English the privilege of a free trade throughout his dominions.

The loss sustained by the Company through this iniquity of its servants, was irretrievable, and the revolution and war that succeeded it, accelerated the

* This island had been ceded to England by the Portuguese, as part of the marriage portion of Catherine, consort to Charles II.

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the ruin of its affairs. A general outcry was at this time also raised against the injustice of monopolies, and against that of the East-India Company in particular. The business was at last brought before Parliament, in which it was determined, that a new company should be established under its sanction, on advancing two millions to government at eight per cent. interest, and that the old company, which derived its privileges from the crown alone, should be permitted to continue its trade till the expiration of its charter, which was not far distant.

After the old and new companies had endeavoured to ruin each other for some time, they wisely put an end to hostilities by an union in 1702. In 1708, the Company lent a farther sum of £1,200,000 to government without interest, which reduced the interest of the whole debt due to it to five per cent. and for this advance the charter was extended, and it received the title of the "United Company of Merchants trading to the East-Indies."

The English first sent ships to China in 1634, and in 1677 were permitted to establish a factory at Amoy, and to trade to Canton.

Arrival of the French, 1616.

The French, for several years after the other nations of Europe had penetrated to India, contented themselves with procuring its productions at second hand from their neighbours. In 1601, indeed,

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indeed, a society was formed in Britany, which dispatched two vessels to India, and in 1616 another society sent two vessels to Java, who returned with cargoes merely sufficient to cover their expense, and consequently afforded no inducement to continue the speculation.

In 1633 a third society was formed, the fruit of whose enterprizes was the spreading an erroneously high idea of the importance of the isle of Madagascar, which had been neglected by the Portuguese, Dutch, and English, as affording none of the objects they sought for in India. In 1642 a company was chartered for twenty years, whose first object was to colonize this island, as an intermediate station or entrepot of commerce between France and India; this project however entirely failed, through the perfidy of the Company's servants entrusted with its execution, and the Company preserved only a mere nominal existence till 1664, when the minister, Colbert, very justly conceived it would be both more honourable and more profitable, to seek the productions of India on its own shores, than in the ports of a rival, and for this purpose he created a Company, with exclusive privileges for fifty years. The favourite object of an establishment at Madagascar was now revived, and four vessels were dispatched thither in 1665, but the ill conduct of the Company's agents a second time rendered the attempt abortive, and in 1670 the Company surrendered its property on the island to the crown. Two years after, most of the French who remained on the island

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island were massacred by the natives, and the remainder fled to Bourbon. This island had been nominally possessed by the French since 1646, when twelve of the first colonists of Madagascar were banished to it, but no fixed establishment was formed on it until 1665.

After the failure of the attempt to colonize Madagascar, the French sent some ships direct to India, and established factories with the consent of the native princes. Their chief rendezvous at first was Surat; but the concurrence of the Dutch and English shortly obliged them to abandon it, and they turned their views towards Trincomalee, which they pretended to think had never been subjugated by the Dutch.

A large fleet was sent to take possession of it, but, owing to mismanagement and the want of provisions, the attempt entirely failed. They then attacked St. Thomé, on the Coromandel coast, and carried it by assault in 1672, but two years after were again obliged to surrender it to the Dutch and natives, after which, collecting their remaining people, they fixed themselves at Pondicherry, where a small district had been ceded to them by the native prince.

In 1684 the prime minister of Siam desiring to engage the French to assist him in mounting the throne, sent ambassadors to Louis XIV. to propose an alliance between the two nations; a squadron was in consequence sent from France, with more *missionaries* than *merchants*, and a treaty was concluded, more favourable to the propaga-

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tion of the gospel than to the interests of commerce.

The Siamese, however, gave up to the French the port of Bancock, at the mouth of the Meinam, and that of Mergui.

The ill conduct of the Company's agents, and the fanaticism of the missionaries, speedily destroyed the brilliant prospects these acquisitions opened, and the French, after feebly assisting the minister in an attempt on the crown, which entirely failed, shared his fall, and were driven entirely from Siam.

They had also attempted to gain a footing in Cochin China and Tonquin, but were unsuccessful in both, and in the beginning of the eighteenth century their establishments were confined to Pondicherry, with insignificant factories at Masulipatam, Rajapore, and Bender Abassi, or Gombroon, on the Persian Gulf. The Company wanting capital to carry on the trade itself, granted licences to private merchants, on paying fifteen per cent. on the imports, and soon after it transferred its privileges on the same condition to the merchants of St. Malo.

After the fall of the celebrated financial schemes of Law, the French Company again raised its head, for it was now protected by Cardinal Fleury, and its affairs conducted by men of abilities and integrity. In 1720 the Isle of France was first colonized, but remained for many years after in a state of infancy.

English, Dutch, and French, 1720.

From this period the histories of the English, Dutch,

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Dutch, and French nations in India, are so blended, that in the remainder of this sketch we shall unite them in one general view.

The English Company's Charter, granted in 1708, was prolonged from time to time, and in 1730 it was renewed for thirty-three years, on consideration of the reduction of the interest of the debt due to it by Government, from five to three per cent, by the means of another loan without interest. In 1744 the war between England and France reduced the commerce of the latter in India for a time, but peace again restored the French affairs, which became more flourishing than ever.

At this period we may date the first commencement of the British dominion in India, which now, like a mighty Colossus, rests either foot on the utmost limits of the East.*

* As early as the year 1640 the English received permission to build a factory at Hoogly, but they were prohibited from fortifying it in any manner, and an ensign and thirty soldiers, as an honorary guard to the factors, was the only military force allowed them. Their defenceless situation exposing them to the exactions of the natives, in 1686 they attempted to establish a defensive post by force of arms, which entirely failed; but in 1689 they received permission to establish a factory at Sootenutty, ten miles below Hoogly, and about the same time they were allowed a free trade, on payment of an annual sum in lieu of customs. In 1696 the petty princes on the west side of the Hoogly took up arms against the Nabob of Bengal, and made a rapid progress, taking Hoogly, and other towns of consequence. On this occasion all the European factors in Bengal declared for the Nabob, and demanded permission to put their factories in a state of defence against the common enemy, and the Nabob in general terms desiring them to provide for their own safety, they immediately fortified their factories, the Dutch at Chinsurah, the French at Chandernagore, and the English built Fort

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From the invasion of Nadir Shaw in 1738, the Mogul empire was torn in pieces by different factions and pretenders to the crown, until it was at length reduced to a state of total debility in 1753. During these troubles, both the French and English had gradually extended their influence on the continent, and in 1747 the latter had obtained the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. It was not to be expected, that the rival European nations would long remain tranquil under the observation of each other's increasing power. In 1751 a dispute arose respecting the succession to the Naboby of the Carnatic, which the French pretended to dispose of, and the two nations commenced hostilities in India. These were, however, soon put a stop to by the governments at home, and a treaty was entered into, by which the French and English were to possess an *equal* dominion, military force and commerce, on the east coast of the peninsula. The war which succeeded in 1756, prevented the execution of this treaty; hostilities were renewed in India, Chandernagore and all its dependencies taken, the loss of Masulapatam, Mahé, and Carrical followed, while the French captured all the English settlements on Sumatra. The adverse squadrons had also

Fort William, close to their factory at Sootenutty, to which they have given the name of Calcutta, and which together with a small territory round it, they were permitted to purchase from the Zemindar or Indian proprietor. Such was the slender foundation of the immense fabric of British dominion in India.

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also frequent but indecisive engagements, but the French were at last obliged to quit the Coromandel coast, and leave the English masters of the navigation of the Bay of Bengal. Pondicherry was taken in 1761, and at the same time all the natives of France found in the Carnatic were sent to Europe.

By the peace of 1763, all the French possessions in India were restored, on condition of constructing no fortification in Bengal; but their power in India had received too severe a shock to be ever able to recover itself. The losses sustained by the war had saddled the Company with an enormous debt, the interest of which eat up the greater part of the profits. The expense of restoring the establishments destroyed by the English, was immense; but, above all, the British dominion in the peninsula was too firmly established to admit any other nation to a favourable concurrence. The French Company was on the point of becoming a bankrupt in 1769, when its exclusive privilege was suspended, and a free trade to India granted to all the subjects of France, on condition, 1st. that licences should be procured from the Company, which was however to grant them gratis. 2d. That the return cargoes were to be landed at the port of Lorient only, and that the imports from China and India should be subject to a duty of five per cent. and those from the Mauritius of three per cent. The Company finding itself unable to resume an active trade, shortly after sold its ships and establishments to A.D. 1763.

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the crown, for thirty millions of livres, but still preserved to itself a certain kind of existence, in the management of a joint stock and in granting licences to trade to India.

A.D. 1787. In 1787, a treaty was concluded between the French government and the dethroned King of Cochin China. To give our readers a clear idea of which, it is necessary to sketch the state of that country from the year 1774.

In that year three rebels raised a civil war in the kingdom, which ended in dethroning the lawful sovereign, and dividing his dominions amongst themselves: him to whom fell the northern division carried his arms into Touquin, and in 1777 had entirely subdued it, and united it to his usurped dominions.

The legal heir to the crown of Cochin China, after vainly trying to regain his dominions by arms, saw no resource, but in the assistance of a foreign power, and at the suggestion of a French missionary who had resided long at his father's court, he determined to solicit this assistance from Louis XVI.; and for this purpose repaired himself to the French court, with which he concluded a treaty, offensive and defensive, by which France engaged to assist him with twenty ships of war, five regiments of Europeans and twenty of sea-poys, with all the necessary military furniture, ammunition, &c. and to lend him one million of dollars in specie. In return for which the Indian prince engaged on his restoration to furnish the materials necessary for equipping and sending to sea

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sea fourteen sail of the line, agreed to the establishment of a marine arsenal under the direction of French officers, with permission to cut ship timber and build vessels in all parts of his dominions, and to the residence of French consuls in all the sea-ports. He also agreed to cede in perpetuity the peninsula and bay of Turon, the island of Callao to the south, and of Hanne to the north of that bay, and engaged to furnish labourers and materials for the construction of bridges, roads, &c. in these ceded territories; to furnish an army of 60,000 men, perfectly equipped, to defend the French establishments in case of attack from a foreign power, and to permit the French to raise 14,000 Cochin Chinese troops, to be employed as they thought fit. In consequence of this treaty a squadron was fitted out in France, the troops embarked on board, and it sailed for the Isle of France, under the command of the missionary who had accompanied the Indian prince and negociated the treaty, and who was created Bishop of Cochin China, and appointed ambassador at that court. On the arrival of the squadron at the Isle of France, Conway, the governor of that island, was to take the command of it, while the missionary ambassador was to repair to Pondicherry, to arrange measures for the final proceedings; but through the instigations of his mistress, who had received some offence from the ambassador, Conway threw so many obstacles in the way, that the armament had not sailed when

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the news of the revolution reached the Isle of France, which overturned the whole project.

From the commencement of the 18th century, Holland being at peace, except during the latter part of the American war, the Dutch retained their possessions, and carried on their commerce in the Indian seas undisturbed, until the French revolution drew them into its vortex. The Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, Malacca, and the Spice Islands, were captured by the English in 1795, at the same time that they lost all the settlements on the continent of India. By the peace of Amiens, their establishments were restored, except Ceylon, which was confirmed to the English. In the late war the Dutch again lost all their settlements in India, but recovered them, with the exception of the Cape of Good Hope, by the peace of Paris.

It is beyond the proposed limits of this sketch to follow the English in the extension of their territorial power in India. It is sufficient briefly to observe, that, with the exception of the capture of Calcutta by the Nabob Surajah Dowla, in 1756, but which was recovered the following year, their progress was uninterrupted; and that in 1765 they were quietly in possession of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, nominally indeed as tributaries to the Mogul, but who was a mere puppet in their hands; and that since that period the Company has been engaged in almost continual wars with the native princes,

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princes, by which it has acquired the absolute dominion of more than half the peninsula.

Spanish Establishments. A.D. 1525.

Magellan having discovered the route to the Spice Islands by the west, Spain determined to pursue her pretensions to these islands, and in 1525 a fleet of seven ships, with 450 chosen troops, sailed from Corunna, and, after suffering the greatest hardships, arrived in a wretched state at Tidor, against the King of which they found the Portuguese had declared war for having received Magellan. The Spaniards taking part with the islanders, began a destructive warfare, which, together with the maladies of the climate, soon reduced their numbers to 120 soldiers, who shut themselves up in a little fort they had built at Tidor, in which they maintained themselves until the arrival of a fleet sent from New Mexico to their assistance, and which had in its passage taken possession of the Ladrone Islands. This reinforcement being, however, too trifling to allow the Spaniards to measure their strength with the Portuguese, they entered into a negociation, by which they bound themselves to quit the Moluccas, and twice sailed for that purpose, but were driven back by storms and contrary winds, and were at last so reduced by these constant disasters, that the few survivors surrendered themselves prisoners to the Portuguese; and here ended all attempts of the Spaniards on these islands, the court of Spain, in 1529, abandoning its pretensions for the sum of 350,000

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350,000 ducats paid to it by Portugal under the name of a loan.

After thus relinquishing the Moluccas, Spain turned her views towards the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, discovered by Magellan, and sent orders to the Viceroy of Mexico to equip a fleet and take possession of it. This squadron, under the command of Villa Lobos, arrived at the island of Sarragan in 1543; but not being able to procure provisions there, he set sail for the Moluccas, contrary to his orders, where he met a very indifferent reception from the Portuguese, who only supplied his wants on the express condition of his immediately departing for Old Spain. Villa Lobos first gave the name of Philippines to the archipelago in honour of the Prince of Asturias, afterwards Philip II.

Philip II, on his succession to the throne, determined on efficiently colonizing the Philippines, and for that purpose, by his orders, a squadron, under Lagapoi, was equipped at Mexico, and arrived at Tondaye. Lagapoi met the same difficulties in procuring provisions from the natives as Villa Lobos, but he possessed more perseverance, and at last, by negociation and force united, succeeded in procuring the necessary supplies; and, fortifying himself in Cebu, dispatched one of his vessels back to Mexico for reinforcements, which successively arriving, enabled the Spaniards not only to resist the natives, but also the Portuguese, who sent a fleet from the Moluccas to attack them; but

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but which, finding them too strong, returned without making any hostile attempt.

In 1571 the Spaniards were firmly established at Manilla, the native princes of the neighbouring provinces voluntarily acknowledging the supremacy of the King of Spain.

In order to encourage emigration from the mother country to the new colony, the colonists were privileged to fit out two ships annually loaded with the manufactures of India, to be exchanged in America for the precious metals. These vessels, which were called Galleons, sailed in the month of July, at first from Cebu to Callao, but afterwards from Manilla to Acapulco. Until 1734 this long navigation across the Pacific was performed without touching at any intermediate port; but since that year the galleons put into St. Lucar, in California, in their voyage to America, and into the Ladrones on their return to the Philippines.

The history of this colony, from the foundation of Manilla, affords little interesting in a military or political point of view. Having no direct commercial communication with Europe, the nations who so long disputed the empire of the commerce of the Indian seas, felt no jealousy, because they feared no rivalship from the Spaniards; and hence the colony enjoyed uninterrupted external tranquillity until 1762, when Manilla was taken by the English, and preserved from plunder by the promise of a ransom of four millions of dollars

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dollars, of which one million only could be raised. By the peace of 1763 Manilla was restored, on the express condition of the payment of the remaining three millions; but this article has never yet been fulfilled on the part of the Spanish government.

In 1785 a Philippine Company was established in Spain, to which was granted the privilege of importing into Cadiz the produce of India and China, and of re-exporting it to the Spanish colonies of America, with the exception of Mexico, which was reserved entirely to the merchants of Manilla to supply by the galleon. In 1803 the Company was new-modelled, and received extensive privileges. The duration was then limited to twenty-two years, and its capital to twelve millions of dollars, in 50,000 shares of 240 dollars each; the king retaining 5,930 shares. It was permitted to import the merchandize of India and China direct to all the ports of Spanish America in the South Sea, Acapulco excepted, which was reserved to the merchants of Manilla, to be supplied as before; but as the Company pay only six per cent. on their imports into Vera Cruz, while the galleon pays enormous duties at Acapulco, the Company is enabled to introduce these objects into Mexico 100 per cent. cheaper than the merchants of Manilla.

The Company have a factory at Manilla, which serves as a depot for the merchandise of India and China, intended to be shipped for Old Spain, and the

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the ports of the Pacific, the chief of which are Lima and Guatimala. The Company, also, import into Manilla the merchandise of Europe.

Their whole commerce occupies only three ships annually, two between Manilla and Spain, and one to Lima and Guatimala.

Establishment of the Danes, Swedes, &c.

The Danes received the first idea of forming establishments in India, from Boschowen, a Dutchman, who discontented with his government, offered his services to Christian IV, to form a settlement at Ceylon, where he had been previously employed by his own nation, and was in favour with the King of Candy. His proposals being accepted, in 1616, an East-India Company was established at Copenhagen, and in the same year six vessels sailed for India; but Boschowen dying on the passage, the Danes were unfavourably received at Ceylon, and from thence they proceeded to the Coromandel Coast, where the King of Tanjore permitted them to form a settlement at Tranquebar, on condition of paying 2,000 pagodas per annum. The Company's affairs continued to prosper for some time, but the Dutch gaining the ascendancy drove them out of the best markets; and receiving no succours from Europe, the Company was reduced almost to bankruptcy in 1634, when it ceded its charter to the crown. In 1670 a new Company was established, which sent the first Danish ships to China, in 1674. The farther vicissitudes of the Danish Indian trade are noticed in the first volume.*

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* Page 371.

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In 1778, the subjects of Austria wishing to gain a footing in the Indian Seas, possessed themselves of the Nicobar Islands, and built a fort; but the Danes complaining of this infringement of their right, the Austrians were ordered by their government to evacuate the islands, which, however, they did not choose to comply with, and the Danes were preparing to dispossess them by force, but a mortality that carried off the whole of the intruders rendered it unnecessary; and theDane shave since enjoyed the unmolested possession of these islands, which is, however, merely nominal, as they make no use whatever of them, and keep but one soldier on them to hoist their flag.

The Danish Company sent out a vessel of 1000 tons annually to India, which, after touching at Tranquebar and Bengal, proceeded to China to complete her cargo with tea, and from thence returned to Copenhagen. During the war of the revolution, this trade was increased to double or even treble; and the trade from Tranquebar and Bengal, under Danish colours, to the Isle of France, Manilla, and Batavia, was immense. By far the greatest part of the capital employed in this trade was, however, English.

All merchandize imported into Tranquebar for consumption pays a duty of two per cent.; and all exports five per cent.

In 1723, an East-India Company was formed at Ostend, which established factories at Covelong, between Madras and Sadras, and at Bankibazar on

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on the Hoogly. The politics of Austria, however, caused this infant establishment to be relinquished in 1727, and the proprietors carried their capital successively to Prussia, Trieste, and Leghorn, from whence they attempted to continue a trade with India, but without success. At last they transferred themselves to Sweden, where a rich merchant, named Koning, relishing their proposals, got a Company chartered in 1731, which existed till 1786, and its affairs were always prosperous; for as it confined itself entirely to the Chinese trade, the concurrence of other nations could not affect it.

On the dissolution of the Swedish Company in 1786, their resident supercargoes at Canton were recalled, and the Swedes have since had no establishments whatever in the Indian Seas.

In 1776, a company was chartered by the Austrian government to carry on a trade from Trieste to India; but their speculations were so unsuccessful, that they were declared bankrupts in 1784.

In 1751, when the province of West Friezeland was ceded to Prussia, two companies were established at Embden, one to trade to China, and the other to India; but their commencement was unsuccessful, and the war of 1756 suspending all their operations at the peace of 1763 they were both dissolved.

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MONSOONS AND CURRENTS IN THE INDIAN SEAS.

As we have already observed in the Introduction, in the Indian Seas to the north of 12° or 13° south latitude, monsoons or half yearly winds blow from the east and west; they are however subject to many local variations from the positions of lands, &c. On the west coast of India, and generally throughout the Arabian Sea, the S.W. monsoon, or rainy season, sets in from the middle of April to May and June, commencing first to the south and extending gradually to the north. In September it loses its strength, and is succeeded by light variable winds and calms for six weeks, till the return of the N.E. monsoon, or fair weather on this coast, which usually commences the latter end of October towards the south, and fifteen or twenty days later towards the north. This monsoon is much less steady than the S.W., being obstructed by the Ghauts; hence during this season land and sea breezes prevail near the coast, and in March are succeeded by strong N.W. winds which last till the return of the S.W. monsoon. On this coast the currents generally set with the winds.

Monsoons.

On the Malabar coast.

On the Coromandel coast.

On the east coast of the peninsula the S.W. monsoon sets in the latter end of March or beginning of April, but is not steady until June; land and sea breezes, with fair weather, prevailing in March, April, and May. In June, July, and August, the S.W. monsoon is at its height, and is attended with cloudy weather and occasional heavy

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heavy showers. In these months the S.W. wind often veers to west near the shores, then becoming a land wind which blows for twenty-four to forty-eight hours. These winds are intensely hot and parching, and extremely dangerous to those who incautiously sleep exposed to them, often causing an entire loss of the use of the limbs, distortions of the body, &c. The S.W. monsoon moderates in August and September, and the N.E. monsoon commences the middle of October, with extremely dirty looking weather, heavy rains, and some years a violent gale of wind. The bad weather lasts on this coast till the beginning of December and renders navigation extremely dangerous. In December, January, and February, the N.E. monsoon blows steady with settled weather. Monsoons.

These alternate changes of seasons on the coasts of Hindostan, are caused by the two chains of Ghauts, which run through the peninsula. On the west coast the chain extends from the latitude of Surat to Cape Comorin, at the distance of thirty to fifty miles inland. The strong S.W. winds arriving on the coast of Malabar, loaded with the evaporations of the equator, strike against the western side of these mountains and condense into heavy rains, while the revulsion of the winds produce violent but transitory storms.(C.)

The clouds thus arrested by the western Ghauts are prevented from reaching the Coromandel coast, where consequently dry weather generally prevails during the S.W. monsoon; but no sooner

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Monsoons. have the winds changed than a similar cause operates to produce a rainy season on this coast. As, however, the eastern chain of Ghauts are further from the sea than the western, and the clouds having consequently a greater space to expand in, the rains on this coast are not of so long continuance, nor the storms so violent as on the Malabar coast.

The high surf on the Coromandel coast and on the west coast of Sumatra, seems to be partly owing to the great body of water forced into the gulf of Bengal during the S.W. monsoon, when the surf is observed to be greatest. On the Coromandel coast, the same effect is produced after the S.W. monsoon ceases, by the N.E. wind impelling the waves on the shore which is very steep, having no soundings at ten leagues distance; but when the N.E. monsoon is settled, and the S.W. current has again carried out of the gulf the water formerly carried into it, that is, in December and January, the surf abates on the Coromandel coast.

The volume of water carried into the Arabian Sea by the S.W. monsoon having a greater space to expand in, the surf on the west coast of Hindostan is trifling in comparison to that of the east coast. The Maldiva and Lackedive islands also break the force of the waves on the former.

At Calcutta. At the head of the bay of Bengal and at Calcutta, the rains commence with the height of the S.W. monsoon in the beginning of June, the reason of which seems to be that the Ghauts terminating at the latitude of Surat, the S.W. winds finding no obstacle farther north drive the vapours to

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to the east, till they are arrested and condensed by the mountains of Rungpore; moreover, the vapours driven by the S.W. monsoon towards the south coast of Ceylon there divide into branches: one taking a course along the coast of Malabar, produces the rainy season there, while the other ascends the bay of Bengal and condenses on meeting the land. The rains last at Calcutta till the middle of October. Monsoons.

On the east side of the Bay of Bengal the monsoons are less steady than on the west, being broken and interrupted by the islands, great rivers, &c. Nevertheless they prevail sufficiently to accelerate or retard the navigation along the coast as they are from the east or west. The S.W. monsoon can hardly be said to extend into the Strait of Malacca, the period of its duration being passed in light winds and squalls. The N.E. monsoon is more perceptible, and is the fair weather season in this strait. East side of the bay of Bengal.

The currents in the gulf of Bengal set with the monsoon more regularly than on the Malabar coast; and near the coast of Coromandel, in the height of the monsoons, have a velocity of two miles and a half per hour. In general there is a current setting through the Strait of Malacca from the China Sea; but in this strait, as well as on the east coast of the gulf, the currents are affected by the streams of rivers, and the tides are considerable in many places.

The monsoons are regular in the middle of the China Sea, the S.W. commencing the end of In the China sea.

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April, and lasting till the middle of October; but near the shores land and sea breezes are experienced in both monsoons. The currents go with the winds, running from two to three miles an hour. The tyfoongs* of this sea are violent tempests, which occur occasionally between the parallels of 16° and the island of Formosa; though not confined to any particular season, they most commonly happen between June and September, and particularly towards the autumnal Equinox, or breaking up of the S.W. monsoon, when they are most severe. Three or four years sometimes pass without a tyfoong, while, in other years, there are several.

The monsoons to the south of the Equator are less regular than to the north, their directions suffering considerable deviations from the islands, straits, &c. In the Mosambique Channel a S.W. monsoon blows from April to November, and is here the fair season; towards its end the winds vary to S.E. and E.S.E. A N.E. monsoon prevails from November to March.

On the west coast of Sumatra the S.E. monsoon sets in May, and lasts till September or October. The N.W. monsoon sets in in this latter month towards the west, extending itself gradually to the east till the month of November, when it has reached New Guinea and blows through Torres Strait into the Pacific. On the coast of Sumatra this monsoon is not experienced to the south of 9°, but

* *Ty*, great or mighty; *Foong* wind.

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but near the coast of New Holland it extends to the 13°.

It will be necessarily inferred, that as the monsoons are favourable to making long passages at stated periods, they are unfavourable to the coasting trade, and present obstacles to the constant navigable communication between places even very near each other; nevertheless, as in general the monsoons do not blow home to the shores with regularity or force for more than six weeks or two months of their respective heights, by keeping close to the shore, and taking advantage of the oblique variations of the wind, and of the land and sea breezes, communication is generally practicable for eight or nine months of the year.

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HINDOSTAN.

HINDOSTAN is usually considered as commencing at Cape Monze or Mohanza, and from this Cape into the Gulf of Cutch is called the coast of *Scindy*, from the Scind (*Indus*), which empties itself through it. Between Cape Monze and this river is Crotchey, about a mile from the bank of a creek accessible only to boats; and the bay, from which the creek is entered, is so shoal that vessels of any burden are obliged to anchor five miles off. The town is surrounded by a mud wall, and the houses are of the same material, very mean and dirty. The population is 10,000 souls, and it has a considerable trade by native vessels from Muscat and the Malabar coast,* as well as a large inland traffic by camels to Candahar and Cabul.

The INDUS is thought to rise on the west side of the ridge of *Imaus*, on the frontiers of Thibet, and often changes its name through its course of 1200 miles. It empties itself by a great many mouths amongst low swampy islands without trees, forming a delta of fifty leagues; opposite which the depth of water is not more than three fathoms at

* By the Malabar Coast, when speaking of commerce, is to be understood the west coast of the Peninsula from Surat inclusive to Cape Comorin.

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at a league distance, and the land is out of sight in six or seven fathoms.(D) Scindy.

The Indus is said to be navigable for vessels of 200 tons to Cashemire; it overflows in April and returns to its bed in July. The largest branch on the west is called the Mehran, and is crossed by a bar, with fifteen feet at high water, and six fathoms within. Laribundar is five leagues above the bar, and is a village of 100 houses of poles and mud, and a mud fort. TATTA (*Patala*) the principal place of the Territory of Scindy, is fifty miles above Laribundar, about two miles from the bank of the river, with which it communicates by a canal. The river is here a milebroad. Though the town is much declined, it is still of considerable extent, and has a great trade by native vessels with the Gulf of Persia, Red Sea, and Malabar Coast. The English had once a factory here, but which has been abandoned more than a century and a half.

The Gulf of Cutch runs in far to the east, having the coast of Cutch on the north, and the Guzerat * on the south. At its head is a low barren tract annually overflowed in the wet monsoon; and forming, it is said, a communication with the river Ran in the Gulf of Cambay, thereby insulating the Guzerat. There are many shoals in this gulf, and it is seldom visited by Europeans. Cutch.

* The derivation of this word is differently given: from the Arabic *Ghezira*, an island, and from the inhabitants being chiefly of the *Guzer* or sow-herd *cast*.

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Cutch. On the north or Cutch shore the principal place is Muddi, a large town of bamboo and mat houses, with a strong Indian fort. It exports a considerable quantity of cotton to Bombay. Bhooj, the chief place of the Cutch territory, is eight leagues N.W. of Muddi.

Guzerat. On the south shore of the gulf, three leagues within Point Jigat, its south point, are Bate and Artura islands, forming a small port, with eighteen to twenty feet water. On the west side of Bate Island is a considerable fort, surrounded by a wall forty feet high. The Rajah of this island is one of the most powerful of the Guzerat pirates, and this island is their general rendezvous; but they have also several forts and ports on the main. Bate Island is fertile in corn, cocoa-nuts, &c.

Point Jigat is on an island, and on the point is a pagoda much revered by Hindoos, and one of their great places of pilgrimage.

Goomtee is another large pirates' town, strongly fortified, about two miles within Point Jigat, on the north.

Between the gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, the coast of the Guzerat is moderately elevated, with inland mountains. It is seldom visited by Europeans, but has many towns, mostly inhabited by pirates, though some of them also trade in their own vessels to Surat and Bombay. The chief towns are Poor Bunder, Novi Bunder, Mangarole and Puttan. The latter has a celebrated pagoda, formerly immensely rich, and of which the grand idol

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idol was washed every morning by water brought from the Ganges. Guzerat.

The Gulf of Cambay (*Baragazenus Sinus*) is bounded by the Guzerat on the west, and by the coast of Surat on the east. Diu Head is its S.W. limit; off which is Diu Island, two miles distant, with a channel only for boats. The island is six miles long and two broad. On the east end is the Portuguese town and castle, one of the strongest fortifications in India, but much reduced from its ancient consequence, not having above 200 Portuguese inhabitants; the remainder, to the number of 40,000, being Banians, Persees, Moors, &c. The trade is also dwindled to insignificance, being transferred to Surat. The water of the wells on the island is brackish, and the rain water preserved in cisterns is chiefly used. Provisions are very plentiful.

The west shore of the Gulf of Cambay from Diu is generally occupied by the pirates, named *Cooleys*; the first of whose ports is Nowabunder, five miles east of Diu, on a creek, into which their vessels enter; Rajapore, another of their places, has a fort on a high elevation.

Jafferabad, though belonging to the piratical chief of Rajapore, is a considerable trading place. It is on the best river of this coast, having no bar, but the entrance is shoal soft mud. The town is walled, but mounts no guns. Six miles east of the town is Searbelt Island, one of the rendezvous of the pirate vessels, where they procure wood, water and

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Guzerat. and corn. The inhabitants of the island are about 200, who occupy a little village, built of stone, on the north side. The island has several wells of excellent water, which seem to have been the work of the Portuguese, being regularly built of cut-stone; and the ruins of some stone walls are also seen. On the island is the tomb of a Mahometan saint, to which offerings are made by the pirates, of the flags of the vessels they take. Goapnaut Pagoda is a place of Hindoo pilgrimage.

Gogo is a large Indian town, on a creek, chiefly inhabited by Lascars, who are the best seamen of India, and chiefly form the crews of the English *Country* ships. It is also a place of some trade, sending cotton to Bombay. The houses are of stone, and the fortifications sufficient to prevent insult from the neighbouring pirates. Ships of 250 tons are built here.

Cambay, at the head of the gulf, on the river Canari or Mahi, is the seaport of Amedabad, the capital of the province. It formerly contained 100,000 inhabitants, and was a great trading place; but, in consequence of the accumulation of mud at the head of the gulf preventing large ships from visiting it, has greatly declined, and all the European factories have been abandoned. For seven leagues below the town the gulf runs dry at low water, but the tide rises five to six fathoms, and runs at the rate of six miles an hour. Its chief trade is in the export of piece-goods of Amedabad, cotton and cornelians to Bombay.

Jumbazeer

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Jumbaseer River, south of Cambay, on the east shore of the gulf, has a great trade in cotton, &c. with Bombay.

The Nerbudda, which empties itself on the east shore of the Gulf of Cambay, is one of the most considerable rivers of Hindostan, rising in the heights of Omerkeuntuk, and in its course receiving scarcely a single tributary stream. Baroach is about eight leagues from the river's mouth, situated on an isolated hill. It was formerly a great trading place, the Europeans having factories here; at present it sends a considerable quantity of cotton and piece-goods to Surat. Surat.

Surat, on the left bank of the Taptee, six leagues from the sea, is one of the largest towns of India, containing 400,000 inhabitants, Hindoos, Moors, Persees,* &c. The streets are narrow and dirty; the houses generally of bamboo and mud, though there are also some very large ones of stone. It is surrounded by a wall twelve miles in circuit; and has a castle, a square building, with a large bastion

* Under the generic name of Moors are included all the Mahometan tribes of Hindostan. The Persees are the descendants of the ancient Persians, who quitted their country on its conquest by the Calif Omar in the seventh century, and sought refuge in Hindostan, and particularly at Surat, where they got permission from the Hindoos to fix themselves and follow their religion, which is that of Zoroaster, or the solar worship, on condition of killing no animal of the cow species: a condition which they pretend never to have violated. The Persees are extremely industrious, commerce and ship building being their chief pursuits; and many of the finest ships out of Bombay belong to Persees at this latter presidency: they are also found as upper servants to Europeans. The Persees, among other peculiar customs, expose their dead to be devoured by birds of prey.

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Surat. bastion at each angle, mounting three tiers of heavy guns; in all 200 pieces of cannon.

The hospital at Surat for animals, supported by Hindoo piety, attracts the notice of travellers; not only quadrupeds and birds are received in it, but it has also wards for bugs and other vermin, which are carefully nourished.

The chief trade of Surat is with the Persian Gulf and Red Sea. The exports are cotton, indigo, and piece-goods.

The country round Surat is a level plain, which produces the most luxuriant crops of wheat, and abounds in hares, foxes, and jackals; the hunting of which forms one of the amusements of the English gentlemen.

The Taptee is one of the sacred rivers of the Hindoos, and is held nearly in as great veneration as the Ganges; though deeply incased within high banks, it sometimes overflows in the rainy season, and does great damage. The extremes of temperature at Surat are 110° from April to August, and in the afternoon, and 52° about Christmas, at sunrise.

In sailing along the coast from Surat to Cape Comorin the chain of Ghauts are constantly in sight, their summits being about fifteen leagues from the sea; the greatest of their elevations is between three and four thousand feet. Their general formation is granite with calcareous and basaltic spots.

Between Surat and Cape St. John there are several

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veral rivers, frequented by boats and small country vessels. The coast here is low, and covered with trees, and in stormy weather or high tides a great part of it is inundated. The only place of any note is Demaun, a Portuguese settlement on a creek or river, crossed by a bar, with only two feet at low water and three fathoms at high. It has a castle and other fortifications, garrisoned by 100 soldiers, and a territory of four leagues along the coast, in which are six Indian villages. A number of ships of from 500 to 900 tons have been built here, the inland country abounding in ship timber.

From Cape St. John to Bombay the shore is lined with a reef, extending three leagues off. Terrapore is a Maratta town and fort, seven leagues south of Cape St. John. S.E., four leagues from it and a little inland, are the peaks of Terrapore and Valentine, the former resembling the ruins of a vast castle, and the latter a very pointed pyramid.

Basseen, formerly a Portuguese settlement, on a river which is crossed by a bar, with six feet low water and four fathoms at high, is of considerable size and well fortified: it is now occupied by the English. Versavah and Mayhim are insignificant places on salt rivers between Basseen and Bombay.

Both to the north and south of Bombay a range of fishing stakes extends out to eight or nine fathoms water; they are great trunks of the cocoa nut tree, laid down at the beginning of the fair season,

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season, and taken up before the setting in of the S.W. monsoon. This is done by means of pressure, on the falling tide boats filled with water being attached to them, which force them into the mud, and they are raised in like manner on the flowing tide by empty boats; they are valued at fifty to sixty rupees each.

Salsette Island is seven leagues long and five broad; it is hilly but fertile, furnishing Bombay with its principal provisions.

On the north side of the island are the ruins of some masonry, thought by some to be those of a monument erected by order of Alexander the Great, to mark the limit of his progress. The remains of many other ancient monuments are seen on the island, as well as excavations in the rock, more numerous, but not equal in size or workmanship to those of Elephanta.

Bombay* Island is separated from Salsette by a narrow, and at times fordable, channel; it is six miles long and one mile broad. Its shores are in general rocky, as well as the interior, but by industry has been greatly improved. Its harbour is formed by the main island and several others, and, except Trincomalee, is the only one of Western India that affords security in all seasons. The town is surrounded by a rampart and wet ditch, with several bastions, and a quadrangular castle on the side of the port. The part of the town

* *Boa-bahia*, in Portuguese, *Good Bay*.

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town occupied by the Europeans differs in no respect from an English town. It has *one* English church. The bazar is within the fort, and presents a striking picture in the variety of people that crowd it; Hindoos, Moors, Persees, Armenians,† Arabs, country Portuguese (not inaptly named *Paria*, or degenerate Portuguese), and English. The town of Bombay has a municipal government lodged in a mayor and aldermen.

Bombay has thirty merchant ships, from 200 to 1,000 tons (total tonnage 18,000) belonging to it; of these 10,000 tons belong to English houses, 1,000 to Portuguese, 300 to Armenians, and the rest to Persees. This is the principal naval arsenal of the Company, and the rendezvous of their vessels of war, usually called the Bombay Marine.(E) There are three docks within each other, for line of battle ships, and it is the only place in India where ships of this size can be received into dock. It has besides a building place for small vessels.

The islands that form Bombay harbour are Old Woman's, low and long, separated from the south end of Bombay by a channel, almost fordable at low water, the communication being by a ferry boat hauled across by a hawser stretched from side to side. On this island is Bombay light-house, 130 feet above the level of the sea; and

† The Armenians are all merchants, and generally travelling ones, transporting the products of one part of India to another.

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and it has many pleasant bungalows,* surrounded by groves of cocoa palms.

Elephanta Island is one of the most celebrated places of India for its caverns: its native name is *Kalapour*, and its present one is from the figure of an elephant in black stone at the foot of one of the hills of which the island is composed. The grotto, which attracts the curiosity of all travellers, is excavated in a vast mass of rock, the roof being supported by columns, also cut in the rock; on the walls are sculptured, in relief, gigantic figures of men with four arms, and other monstrous figures of both sexes. The symbols of Hindoo worship on several parts prove it to have been a temple consecrated to religion. The Portuguese on their first arrival in India, with the foolish rage of bigots, brought their cannon to play against this sanctuary, and greatly defaced the figures.

Caranjar Island is of considerable extent, low, and covered with wood, except two hills separated by a low valley, and which serve as marks for the harbour of Bombay. Choul Island is low and level. Henery, and Kenery, and Coulaba, are small islands close to the main; they are well fortified, and belong to the Malabar pirates.

Choul harbour and town on the main within the island of the same name, belongs to the Marattas,

* The bungalow is a dwelling house on the ground floor *only*, generally it is of wood, surrounded by a verandah.

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rattas, and is never visited by Europeans; to it succeeds Rajapour, a good harbour, with four or five fathoms in the entrance, before which are two islands with native forts. Bancoot is on a river, with ten feet over a bar at low water, the rise of tide being eleven feet in the springs. On a high barren hill south of the entrance is Fort Victory, belonging to the English. From hence to the south a considerable extent of the coast is occupied by pirates, whence it is never touched at by European, or any other trading vessels. Their chief retreats are in the mouths of rivers which receive their vessels, and are fortified; the principal is Severndroog, a low island, a musquet-shot from the main, which has the remains of fortifications cut out of the solid rock, and which was deemed impregnable until taken from *Angria* by the English in 1755, when it was given to the Mahrattas. Concan.

Angenweel River receives the native vessels, and is protected by a fort. Zyghur is on a river. Rajapour Island, or Antigherria, is small, high, and covered with trees, laying close to the main; within it is a large Indian town of the same name.

Gheria, formerly the capital of the celebrated pirate *Angria*, is built on the north peninsular point of a bay, rocky, considerably elevated, and joined to the main by a narrow neck of sand. A considerable river washes the north side of the peninsula, and forms an excellent land-locked harbour, with three and four fathoms at low water. The territory of Angria extended on the coast 150

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Concan. miles south of Geriah, and for half a century before 1756 his vessels plundered or captured the ships of all nations, and had even the audacity to attack an English line of battle ship with other vessels in company. At length a treaty was concluded between the English and Mahrattas to destroy Angria; and in 1756, Commodore Watson, with four sail of the line and several frigates, with 2,000 troops, in conjunction with the Mahratta naval and military force, attacked and took Gheriah, and put an end to the dominion and piracies of its chief.

Dewghur Island is opposite a river which can receive one or two ships in three fathoms. On the island is a native fort.

Melundy, or Malwan Island, is the principal station of the present pirates of this coast. It is covered with fortifications, and has besides a large fort on the main to protect the vessels. The Malwans are the most cruel of these freebooters: they have three kinds of vessels, gallivats, shebars, and grabs; the first are decked, and generally square rigged with two masts. The shebar is not decked, has two masts, but the after one is very small: they carry one very large lateen sail, and some of them are 150 tons. The grab differs from a European ship in having a long projecting prow. Each of these three kinds of vessels carries eight to ten small carriage guns, and 100 men. They take all vessels except those with English colours and passes.

The Vingorla Rocks, or Burnt Islands, are a cluster

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cluster of twenty rocks, whitened by the ordure of birds; they lie four leagues off shore. Between them and Goa are Raree, Chiracole, and Chapra forts, belonging to the Portuguese. Coast.

Goa,* the capital of the Portuguese in India, is seven miles from the sea, on the left bank of the navigable river Mantoa, which falls into a fine bay, the south side of which is formed by the peninsula of Marmagon. The river is crossed by a bar, with sixteen feet at high water springs. Its banks are beautifully diversified, and here, as every where else, the monks have chosen the most picturesque and richest situations for the sites of their convents. About four miles from the river's mouth is a town where the governor usually resides, it being considered a more healthy situation than Goa. The latter is of considerable size, with wide streets and many handsome houses, but without inhabitants, since an epidemical disease almost depopulated the city about thirty-five years ago. Among the numerous churches, many of which are in a state of decay for want of funds to repair them, is that of the Jesuits, containing the tomb of St. Francis Xavier, sent out from Lisbon, a most magnificent piece of sculptured marble. Goa has latterly been garrisoned by British troops.

From Goa to Cape Ramas the coast is low and woody, with a sandy beach. Two miles north of

* The native name is Trikurii.

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Concan. the Cape is Salset River, with a bar on which is eight or nine feet; a branch of this river communicates with that of Goa, making the land of the latter an island. Cape Ramas is a high bluff point with an Indian fort: it terminates the territory of the Portuguese and the Concan.

Canara. Sedasivaghur (usually called Carwar Fort by the English) is on a lofty hill on a north bank of a salt river, or inlet of the sea, which is wide and deep, having twenty-five feet at high tide, but the channel is intricate: before it are the oyster rocks of the English, three islets, one of which, named Carmaguda, is fortified. On the opposite bank of the river, and three miles higher up, are the ruins of Carwar (Cadawada), formerly a great trading place, but deserted since the country came under the dominion of Tippoo.

The Anjediva Island is before a bay, inclosed by two mountain promontories; it is a mile long, with a fort, and belongs to the Portuguese, who send hither their convicts. It is thought that ships may find shelter in this bay, even in the S.W. monsoon.

Belicary, a salt water inlet, with many islets, which receives loaded boats: north of its mouth is the high island Sonaka-Guda, off a lofty projecting headland, which limits a fine bay to the N.E.

Ancola, a ruined fort and Indian village; Gangawali, a salt-water inlet, which, after passing a narrow entrance, spreads out into an extensive lagoon.

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goon. The country trading boats can enter the inlet over a bar, and small boats ascend it some miles. Canara.

Guakarna, or the Cow's Horn, on a river, is an Indian town of 500 scattered houses; it is a place of great note among the Brahmans, from possessing a celebrated image of Siva (one of the incarnations of Vishnu), which, according to the Hindoo belief, was conveying from a mountain to the capital of an ancient king, but being put down here, it fixed itself, and could never be removed. It is covered by a very poor building.

Tari-holay River is of considerable size, the salt water flowing up it several miles. On it is the Indian town of Merjee (Midijay), nearly deserted from the exactions of Tippoo's government. This is the most convenient wooding and watering-place on the Malabar Coast.

Hullady-pura, an open Indian town of between 300 and 400 houses, near a large salt water creek. Its present name, signifying Turmeric Town, was given it on the conquest of the country by Hyder: its original appellation, Handy-pura, Hogtown, being an abomination to the Mussulman.

Onore (Honawera), formerly a great Indian city, but destroyed by Hyder Ali: it is on a salt lagoon of great extent, in which are many islands, some of them cultivated. It runs in almost to the Ghauts, and in the dry season is quite salt; but the numerous torrents it receives in the rainy season render it quite fresh. It abounds in fish. Here Hyder formed a dock-yard, and built some ships of war, whose wrecks are still seen in the

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Canara. lake, having been sunk by the English when they carried the fort by assault, in 1783.

North of the entrance of Onore Lake is the fortified island of the English, Baswa Rosa Durga of the natives: it is a mile from the main, six miles in circuit, forming an elevated platform, surrounded by a wall, with towers mounting guns. It has but one landing-place, at the south end; has plantations of cocoa-nut and plantain trees, with abundance of fresh water. It also affords a red earth, used by the natives to paint their houses.

Beilura is an Indian village, a mile south of which is the temple of Murodeswara, on a lofty promontory, insulated at high water. South of which is a little bay, sheltered by some rocks above water. S.W. of the promontory is Hog Island (Jaliconda of the natives) rising in a peaked hill. Farther, in the same direction in the offing, is a great rock; and still further is Pigeon Island, the Naytravi-Guda * of the natives: it has a stream of fresh water and good landing on its west side: its shores have many caverns, frequented by wild pigeons; and it is surrounded by *madrepore*, which is taken off to make lime. On the island is a stone pillar, representing a *Buta*, or male devil, who being supposed to destroy the boats of those who neglect him, the boatmen and traders visit the island, and offer him cocoa-nuts, &c. On the continent opposite is a similar pillar; but this devil

* Guda, *i. e.* a hill.

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devil being considered less troublesome than the island one, receives fewer propitiatory visits. Canara.

Shirally is a poor village, on a sea creek. Battaculla, or the round tower, is an open town of 600 houses, and two mosques: it is on the north bank of a fine river, running through a beautiful valley.

Baidura, a village of 120 houses. Barcelore, on a salt river, four miles from the sea.

Cundapore (Kunda-pura), an Indian town of 250 houses, on the south side of a river crossed by a bar, with fourteen feet spring tides. Within the bar the river expands into a broad lake, with many fertile islands. Before the entrance of the river are the Permira, or Molky Rocks, three leagues off shore; and St. Mary's Rocks.

Hirtitty and Brama-warra, are small villages. Udipa has 200 houses, and is a mile from the sea.

Mangalore (Codeal Bunder) is a large Indian town, built round the shores of a peninsula, in the elevated centre of which is a citadel. This peninsula projects into an extensive salt lagoon, separated from the sea by a narrow beach of sand, in which was formerly an opening capable of admitting vessels of burden, but recently this channel has diminished in depth, so as to admit only vessels of ten feet; and a second one has been formed, which has still less water. The lake abounds with fish. Two peaked hills rise behind it, called by seamen the Asses Ears. Mangalore was the chief port of Tippoo's dominions, where his navy rendezvoused, and which at one time consisted of several fri-

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Comara. gates, besides line of battle ships building. It chiefly exports rice by Arab vessels to the Persian Gulf and Red Sea, pepper, areka, &c.

Ulala is a large town on the south shore of the lagoon of Mangalore; Hasso-Betta (or the new strength) a large straggling Indian town, on the steep bank of a river, on which is also the town of Manjes-wara. Cumly on a high point of land between two rivers which fall into a salt lagoon, separated from the sea by a sandy spit; it has 150 houses. Kanya-pura on one of the rivers that form the peninsula of Cumly, has 200 houses; from hence for several leagues to the south is a chain of salt lagoons; but the banks which separate them from the sea render them almost useless to navigation.

Chandra-giri, a large square fort on the south bank of a river, which is very wide but shallow; Beacul, a strong native fort on a projecting high point, with a bay on the north; Hasso-durga or Pungalcotay (the new fort) is a large fort on an elevation with *round* bastions, in which respect it is singular, the natives' forts having all *square* bastions.

Malabar. The MALABAR coast extends from a little to the north of Mount Dilla * to Cape Comorin; its native name is *Malayalam*, mountainous country, and that of Malabar seems to be derived from the Indian *Male*, a country, and the Persian *Bahr*, the sea. This coast, from the foot of the Ghauts, is

* Mount Dilla is a hill separated from the main by salt-water creeks, and forming a remarkable promontory. The north limit of Malabar is an inlet of the sea at a place called Urigara.

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is for the most part composed of small hills separated by narrow vallies, and of low plains bordering the sea, and intersected by salt lagoons, within a chain of sandy and narrow islands. The natives of this coast are of various descents. Those named *Naïrs* and *Namburis* seem to be of Hindoo origin, though their language and customs differ essentially from the Hindoos of Bengal. Many of their customs are extremely singular, particularly those of the Naïrs respecting the intercourse of the sexes; the husband never knowing his wife, after the night of consummation, but as a consolation: the lady has the enviable privilege of receiving to her bed as many lovers of *the cast* as she fancies. As in this state of society it is impossible to tell who is the father of a child, inheritance goes in the female line; every man looking upon and treating his sisters' children as his heirs. Malabar.

Another tribe of this coast is named *Mopleys* or *Mapulets*, and are the descendants of Arabs that established themselves on the coast in the eighth century; they are Mussulmans, much more industrious than the Hindoos, being both farmers and traders. The *Nazarens* are a Christian sect, who deduce their origin from a certain St. Thomas, who landed near Madras soon after the Christian era, and visited Cochin, where he founded a church, which still exists and is the metropolitan, but subject to the patriarch of Antioch. This sect have no images or pictures in their churches, but worship the cross; their priests are allowed to marry.

The first place on the Malabar coast is Cavai, a Mopley

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Malabar. Mopley town, of sixty or seventy houses; to which succeeds Mutmul, at the mouth of a river named after a town on its banks, Billiapatam (*Valuppatanam*, the increasing city). The mouth of the river is wide but crossed by a bar, within which it divides into two branches navigable for boats several leagues.

Cananore (Canura), a large Indian town on a small river, with a fort on a point of land, that forms the best bay on this part of the coast. The town, with a district round it, belonged to the Bibi or Lady of Cananore, to whom also belonged several of the Laccadive islands, and who has several trading vessels which sail to Arabia, Bengal, and Sumatra. At present Cananore is absorbed in the English dominion.

Tellicherry, a considerable English establishment, surrounded by fortified lines, and with a large fort near a barred river; here all the pepper of the province of Malabar is collected to be shipped for Europe. It is considered one of the healthiest spots in India.

Mahé, formerly a French factory, with a fort mounting 300 guns, of which no vestige remains, having been rased by the English in 1761. The barred river that passes it has seven feet at high water and is navigable a considerable way for boats.

Vadacurry is a Mopley town at the mouth of a salt-water creek, which is the commencement of a long inland navigation to the south, within a chain of sandy islands, parallel to the coast; Cottah

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Cottah and Ellore are on other creeks communicating with this navigation. Malabar.

The Sacrifice Rock (*Cugnali* of the natives, and *Santos* of the Portuguese) is a bare rock whitened by birds' dung, two leagues off shore and steep.

Calicut (Coli-codu,*) is a large Indian town of 5,000 houses, chiefly inhabited by Mopleys; it is situated on a river navigable by boats 100 miles, and by which a quantity of teak timber is floated down for export. It also exports a great quantity of cocoa-nuts, areka, pepper, ginger, turmeric, cardamums, coir, and charcoal of the cocoa-nut shell, which is preferred by goldsmiths, for the intense heat it gives. This port is the principal one of India visited by the Arabs of Muscat.

Beypour (Vaypura) is a small Indian town of 120 houses, beautifully situated on the north side of a river, within the bar of which is deep water, and in the rainy season vessels of ten feet can

* The origin of this name is thus related by the natives: "When *Cheruman Permal*, a conquering usurper, who lived 1000 years since, had divided Malabar amongst his nobles and had no principality to bestow on the ancestor of the *Tamuri* (Zamorin), he gave that chief his sword, with all the territory, in which a cock crowing at a small temple here could be heard; this formed the original dominions of the *Tamuri*, and was called *Colicodu*, or the cock crowing. This place continued to be the chief residence of the Tamuri Rajas until the Mahometan invasion, and became a very flourishing city, owing to the success that its lords had in war, and the encouragement which they gave to commerce. Tippoo destroyed the town and removed its inhabitants; but in little more than a year after this forced emigration the English conquered the province, and the old inhabitants returned with joy and rebuilt it.—*Buchanan's Journey through Malabar.*

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Malabar. can enter it. It exports teak timber to Bombay. Tippoo built a sixty gun ship here; and planned a town in the European manner, *i. e.* with regular and wide streets, crossing each other at right angles.

Paru-panada is a Mopley town, of 700 stone houses; to which succeeds Paniani.

Paniani (Punany Wacul) is a considerable Indian town, having forty mosques, 500 houses of traders, comfortably built of stone, thatched with cocoa-palm leaves,* and 1,000 huts of the poor class, chiefly boatmen and fishermen. The town is scattered over a sandy plain, on the south bank of a river which runs between mountains covered by teak forests, the timber of which is floated down the stream; the entrance is very wide, but crossed by a bar that admits only the trading-boats of the natives, named patemars, who carry each 50,000 cocoa-nuts, or 500 bags of rice. The trade of this place is considerable, and entirely in the hands of natives: the exports are teak wood, rice, and cocoa-nuts.

Biliancotta (Valiencodu), an open village and ruined fort, a little south of a large salt-water inlet.

Chowgaut

* This thatch is of a very perishable nature, and requires to be removed every year. The leaves of the *brab* palm (*corypha umbraculifera*), also used as thatch, is still less durable, requiring to be changed twice a-year. This latter serves the natives as umbrellas, and as paper, the writing being by punctuation with iron styles; the pith of the tree also affords a flour, which is eaten in times of scarcity, that is to say, every year between the middle of July and the middle of September, for the Hindoo Malabars are so improvident, that by this time their stock of rice is expended, and the price in the markets is double that of harvest time.

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Chowgaut (Shavacodu, or deadly forest) is a small Mopley and Nazaren town. Chitwa (Shetuwai) is at the north extremity of a large island, named Manapuram, separated from the continent by a large salt-water lagoon, which forms an extensive inland navigation. *Malabar.*

Cranganore, formerly a Dutch factory, on one of the creeks communicating with the lagoon above noticed, whose entrance is crossed by a bar with six feet. Inland from Cranganore is the gap in the Ghauts, called by the natives the Animalaya Passage.

Cochin is situated on an island, and is so low that the roofs of the houses are the first objects seen in approaching it from the sea. The inlet on which it is placed is crossed by a bar, which is practicable by vessels of fourteen feet; and vessels of 1,000 tons are built here for the merchants of Bombay, teak timber being procured with facility. Cochin is fortified in the European manner, and was heretofore the principal settlement of the Dutch on the Malabar coast. Here is a tribe of Jews, whose establishment in this territory, as appears by the tablets of copper on which their privileges are engraved, preserved at Cochin, dates from the eighth century.

Alipee, a town belonging to the Rajah of Travancore, with considerable trade in pepper, corn, and timber, &c.

Porca and Quilon are small Indian towns; the latter was formerly one of the most considerable places

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Malabar. places on the Malabar coast, but its fortifications are now in ruins.

Anjengo, an English establishment, and the most southerly on the Malabar coast, is a small fort, nearly surrounded by the curving of a brackish river, which admits only small craft over its bar. A few huts form the village near the fort.

Veniam and Tengaypatam are Indian towns, on rivers which nearly run dry, but in the rains have depth for long boats.

Cape Comorin, the south point of the hither peninsula, is low and level; but a little hillock to the north of it is usually set by seamen as the cape. This hillock is the southern termination of the Ghauts, and is not above half a league from the shore.*

The coast to the east of Cape Comorin, called of Madura, or Tinevelly, is little frequented by Europeans. On it are many Indian villages on rivers; the principal of which is Tutacorin, in the neighbourhood of which is a productive fishery of chakes: the rise of the tide is here only two or three feet. Farther east is a long projection, called Point Ramen; opposite which is the Isle of Ramisseram, dedicated solely to the purposes of the Hindoo religion, having one of the richest and most

* Its name in Malabar is Komari. Its summit is 1294 yards above the level of the sea; a beautiful cascade falls down its side. The Indian goddess of the mountains, Parvati, was worshipped on this hill; and a chapel, dedicated to the Holy Virgin, was founded here by St. Francis Xavier, in the pious idea of transferring the worship from the heathen divinity.

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most celebrated pagodas of India, dedicated to SHIVEN, the destroying power. No plough is permitted to break the soil of the island, nor is any animal, wild or domestic, allowed to be killed on it. According to the Hindoo mythology, Rama erected this pagoda on his return from the island of Ceylon, where he destroyed Ravan, the king of the giants that inhabited that island.

LACCADIVA ISLANDS.

Off the Malabar coast, at the distance of thirty-eight leagues, and between the latitudes of 12° and 10°, are the Laccadiva Islands, of which thirty-two are counted. They are all low, surrounded by reefs of coral;* producing abundance of cocoa-nuts, areka, plantains, and other fruits. They are inhabited by Malabar Mopleys, who visit the Malabar coast in their own boats, constructed of the trunks of the cocoa palm, loaded with cocoa-nuts, coir cordage of their manufacture, jagory and areka.(F) Vessels also visit these islands from the coast for coral reef stone *(madrepore)*, for the purpose of making Hindoo images and burning into lime. Ambergris is also found on the beaches.

These islands, being never visited by European ships,

* Generally the islands are on the east edge of the reefs, and the latter stretches off from them to the west.

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ships, are little known in detail; the two southernmost are, Seuhelipar and Kalpeni, each composed of two islets: those of Seuhelipar are distant eight miles from each other, but surrounded by reefs. Kalpeni is also two islets joined by a reef; it is four miles long and one broad. On the S.W. side is a town, and an opening in the reef for the boats to land.

Underoot, north of Kalpeni, is less than the latter, and has a village of a few scattered houses on the north side, whose inhabitants are poor and inoffensive.

The bank of Cherbaniani is a dangerous reef, N.W. of the Laccadivas. The sea breaks violently on it; and in the N.E. monsoon some of the rocks are dry.

South of the Laccadivas, and a little more than midway between them and the Maldivas, is Manicoy Island; about two leagues long and only half a mile broad, forming a crescent to the N.W. with a reef across it, leaving a channel, in with two fathoms. On this side is a village, the inhabitants of which are friendly: and here is caught the fish called *commel mutch*, highly esteemed in Malabar. The channel between this island and the Laccadivas is called by the Arabs *Mamal*, and by the Europeans the *Nine Degree* Channel: that between it and the Maldivas is named by the former *Sindal*, and by the latter the *Eight Degree* Channel.

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MALDIVA ISLANDS.

The Maldiva Islands are a large chain, laying S.W. of Cape Comorin, between the latitude of 7½° N. and the equator. They are said to be upwards of 1,000 in number, divided into several groups called by the natives *Attolons*, of which there are thirteen principal ones. Though so near the coast of India, this archipelago is very little known to us, and the only account we have been able to procure of it is contained in the relation of the shipwreck of Pyrard, a Frenchman, and which we shall translate in his own manner. "It is marvellous," says he, "to see each of these *Attolons* encompassed by a great bank of rock all round, there being no human artifice, which could so well shut with walls a space of ground like this. These Attolons are all round or oval, having each thirty leagues circumference, some a little more others a little less, and are all close to each other, without any of them touching; between each two are channels of the sea, some broad, others very narrow. Being in the middle of an Attolon, you see round you this great bank of rocks, which, as I have said, surrounds and defends the islands against the impetuosity of the sea. But it is a frightful thing, even to the most courageous, to approach this bank and to see coming from a great distance, the waves breaking with fury all around; for this, I assure you, is a thing that I have seen an infinity of times. The surf is greater than a house, and as

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white as cotton; so that you see round you like a white wall, principally when the tide is at the full." He also adds, that each separate island is surrounded by its own reef, and that the currents which set through these narrow channels are so violent, that it would be impossible for the inhabitants to communicate from island to island, if nature had not provided for this purpose. Each Attolon is divided by two channels which cut it diagonally, and of which the extremities unite with the great channels that separate the Attolons, so that to pass from one Attolon to another, when the current sets from the west, you quit the Attolon you are on by the eastern diagonal channel, where the water is smooth, and you are carried by the current to the opposite Attolon, which you enter by the diagonal channel on the west.

There are several ship channels between the Attolons, of which those best known are the *Cardiva* channel on the north, the *Equinoctial* channel, and the *One and Half Degree* channel.

The inhabitants are Mahometans, in their appearance resembling the Moors of India, and are considered quiet and inoffensive. They trade in their own boats made of cocoa-nut trees, and of the burden of thirty tons, to Bengal and other places; exchanging the produce of their islands, consisting of cocoa-nuts, coir, cocoa-nut oil, cowries,* and tortoise-shell, for betel-nut, china-ware,

* The cowries are caught by putting branches of cocoa-nut trees with their leaves on into the sea, and in five or six months the little fish stick to these leaves in clusters, from which they are taken off and thrown into sand

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ware, opium, coffee, iron, and other articles of domestic consumption; they also send large quantities of dried bonito to Achen. They make very fine mats for sleeping on.

The principal island is named Male, or King's Island, being the residence of a chief, whose house is two stories high; the dwellings of his subjects are scattered about the island, built of wood and covered with the leaves of the cocoa palm. There are many cannon on this island, particularly near the king's residence, where is their principal magazine. The anchorage is very close to the shore on a coral bottom; the native boats lay inside the rocks, the channels being closed by booms at night.

The following account of the currents among these islands is from Mr. Horsburgh's Directory. "In March and April, the current sets generally to the E.N.E. about the south Attolon, from the equator to latitude 4° or 5° S. and extends far to the east and west of the meridian of the islands. This current is sometimes strong, from fifty to sixty miles in twenty-four hours, at other times weak and fluctuating. From the equator in the same months to latitude 8° or 9° N. the current sets mostly to the S.W.

"In May the current sets strong to the eastward near the equator, sometimes from fifty to seventy miles in twenty-four hours, in the track near the

sand pits, where they remain until the fish is putrified and decomposed. —*Hamilton's Account of the East-Indies.*

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Maldivas, from latitude 2° N. to 2° S. the winds being then variable, but mostly from the westward.

"In the latter end of June and July, when the S.E. trade approaches the equator, the currents set often to the W.N.W. about the south end of the Maldivas, particularly to the south of the equator.

"In October, November, and December, the current sets strong to the west, at times in the track between Ceylon and these islands."

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CEYLON.

The island of Ceylon is separated from the S.E. extremity of the peninsula of Hindostan by the Gulf of Manar, which is crossed by a narrow ridge of rocks and sand nearly dry, called Adam's Bridge;* and which stretches from the Isle of Manar near Ceylon, to that of Ramisseram near the continent, the distance being ten leagues. The greatest depth over any part of the bridge at high water is three to four feet, and the only passage is between the Isle of Ramisseram and the main, which is not above 100 feet wide with five feet at high water. This channel is called by the natives *Odi-aroo*, or Serpent River: the shoal part is about 300 yards, over hard rock. East of the bridge the gulf is called Palk's Bay, from a Dutch Governor of Ceylon, and that on the west is properly the Gulf of Manar.

Ceylon was known to the ancients by the name of *Taprobane*, but the accounts of it to be found in their writings are extremely vague and often

 contradictory.

* The name of Rama's Bridge, given it by the Hindoos, is changed to Adam by the Mahometans, who suppose Ceylon to have been the seat of our first parents, and that when driven from it they crossed by this natural bridge to the continent. Modern writers suppose this strait to have been formed by a convulsion, which separated the island from the continent.

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contradictory. The Sanscrit name of the island is *Tapobon*, signifying the hallowed groves or wilderness of prayer; the name given it by its natives is *Lanca*, the *Holy Land;* that of Zeilan or Ceylon, is probably derived from *Sinhal*, the lions; the native name of the inhabitants (Cingalese), from the Indian word *Sing*, a lion; and which seems also to be the origin of *Sielen-diba* and *Serandib;* by the latter of which names it is known to all Mahometan nations. In 1505, Lorenzo Almeyda first landed on Ceylon, and from this period until 1658, when they were expelled by the Dutch, the Portuguese maintained a superiority in the island. The dominion of the States-General continued until 1795, when their possessions in India were captured by the English, and by the Treaty of Amiens this island was confirmed to Great-Britain.

The island has an oval form and a circuit of 900 miles, being 250 miles in length and 150 broad. Almost its whole circumference is lined with a sandy beach, and broad border of cocoa-nut trees, behind which rise double and treble ranges of lofty mountains covered with wood. The S.E. coast is particularly mountainous, the summits rising in extraordinary shapes, which have acquired them the names of Friar's Hood, the Elephant, the Chimney, &c. The central mountains of the island overtop those near the coast, and one of their summits, named Adam's Peak, may be seen fifty leagues; it is revered by the Cingalese, under the name of *Ham-al-El*, or Ham

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Ham the Sun, and on its summit is a rock with an impression resembling that of a man's foot, which according to the belief of the Mahometans is that of Adam, while the Candians ascribe it to Budha, who after 999 metamorphoses, took flight from this spot for heaven. Hence the worshippers of this divinity formerly flocked from Pegu, Siam, and other eastern countries, to visit this sacred print; which, however, the Christians ascribe with almost equal probability to St. Thomas. The north extremity of the island is low, and intersected by shallow inlets surrounding islands.

The island is abundantly watered having several considerable rivers and a great number of lesser streams. The four principal rivers have their sources in the central mountains, and are named the *Calamy-Ganga*,* which empties itself near Columba; the *Callu-Ganga*, which falls into the sea at Caltura; the *Mahavilla-Ganga*, which falls into the great bay of Trincomalee, and the Neel-Ganga, which disembogues at Matura. The island possesses but two harbours, those of Trincomalee and Point de Galle.

The mountains of Ceylon are rich in minerals, particularly iron, gold, quicksilver, plumbago mixed with mica, copper, and a profusion of precious stones, which latter afford a large source of trade.

The soil produces rice and all the common fruits

* Ganga, river.

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of the tropics, and some scarce ones, particularly the celebrated bread fruit (*atocarpus*), which is here indigenous. Next to cinnamon the cocoa palm is the most valuable product of the island; by the nuts, coir, oil, and arrack, it affords for export; next to the cocoa is the areca palm, whose nuts are also a valuable object of commerce.

The wild quadrupeds are elephants in vast numbers, buffaloes, wild hogs, deer of various species, hares, a small species of tiger, wild cats, monkeys, porcupines, racoons, jackalls, squirrels, &c. Snakes are extremely numerous, particularly the deadly *cobra capella*.

The climate of Ceylon differs considerably at its extreme points. On the south the vicinity of the mountains and the sea temper the heat, and the medium of the thermometer throughout the year is 82°, the variations being very trifling; on the north the medium of the thermometer is 86°, and the maximum much greater. The interior of the island is extremely inimical to Europeans, the confinement of the air between the high mountains, the marshes, and close vegetation, producing the disease known in India by the name of the *Jungle* fever.* The *berry-berry*, an endemial disease of Ceylon, is a kind of dropsy that proves mortal in a few days; the leprosy and elephantiasis are also common.

The island divides the seasons in the same manner

* Jungle, the Indian name for a thick underwood.

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ner as the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar; thus, while torrents of rain fall on the south and west coasts in the S.W. monsoon, the east and north coasts experience an unclouded sky, and *vice versa*. Land and sea breezes, however, prevail on the coast for nine months of the year.

The population of Ceylon is of several different races, the *Cingalese*, *Candians*, and *Malabars* forming the great mass. The two first are the descendants of the aborignes, and the latter are intruders from the neighbouring continent. The Cingalese chiefly inhabit the southern sea-borders of the island, possessed by the Europeans; they are remarkable for their inoffensive disposition, their hospitality and ceremonious politeness, and aversion to arms. Their religion is that of Budha, and their language derived from the Sanscrit. They are divided into nineteen casts, in the following progression of consideration.

1 Cultivators,
2 Keepers of cattle,
3 Fishers,
4 Drawers of toddy,
5 Artisans
6 Tanners,
7 Potters,
8 Washers of cloaths,
9 Cinnamon peelers,
10 Porters,
11 Sieve makers,
12 Barbers,
13 Lime burners,
14 Drummers,
15 Makers of charcoal,
16 Palanquin bearers,
17 Weavers of mats,
18 Executioners,
19 Those who touch dead carcases.

A number of Cingalese, and principally of the first cast, have been converted to christianity by the Portuguese and Dutch, the number of Calvinists

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vinists being at present thought to be 400,000, and the Catholics not much fewer. The Cingalese are governed by their own magistrates under the supremacy of the English.

The Candians are the same race as the Cingalese, and differ from them only in the effects produced by inhabiting the mountainous region, and having little or no foreign intercourse, that is, in possessing more energy and less hospitality. The religion and general customs of the Cingalese and Candians are also the same. Their clothing consists of a large piece of cloth wrapped round the body, a tight waistcoat with plaited sleeves, a double pointed bonnet, and their fingers covered with rings; the women wait on their husbands at table, and with their children make their repasts of what is left. Polygamy is admitted among the Ceylonese, and nevertheless the men are not jealous of the women. Among them it is customary to cohabit on trial for some months, before the final marriage ceremony; the latter consists in tying the thumbs of the couple together, or enveloping them both with a long piece of cloth. In the intercourse of the sexes there is little more restraint or delicacy than among the Otaheiteans.

The Malabars chiefly occupy the coasts of the northern part of the island, and differ in no respect from the same tribe on the continent; they are in general either merchants, tailors, fishermen, or sailors. Some of them have become Christians, others have adopted Mahometanism, but

but the great majority have adhered to the Hindoo doctrine.

In the mountains near the northern division of the island is a savage tribe, by some said to be fair complexioned,* by others negroes, named *Bedahs* or *Vedahs*, who hold no intercourse with the other inhabitants, are without clothing or fixed dwellings, living on the produce of the chase and spontaneous vegetables, and passing the night in trees. Their number is confined to a few thousands, they speak the Candian dialect, and their religion is little known, but they are supposed to follow the Hindoo doctrine.

A considerable number of free Malays are also established in Ceylon, as well as *country* Portuguese.

Candy, the chief place of the independent interior of the island, is situated on the summit of a hill, nearly insulated by the Maliva-ganga, a deep and rapid stream, to which and to its elevation it is chiefly indebted for its strength, being only surrounded by a mud wall. The mountains which compose the neighbouring country are covered with impenetrable jungle, and the few narrow passes are crossed by strong hedges of interwoven shrubs.

The government of Candy is an absolute despotism, tempered however by traditional customs; the

* These accounts are reconcilable on the supposition that individuals of this tribe are white negroes, similar to the Chacrelas of Java.

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the nobles are obliged to prostrate themselves in approaching the sovereign, and it is considered a high crime to speak, or even to cough, in the royal presence.

The coasts of Ceylon present a long continuity unbroken by any other indentation than the mouths of some rivers and a very few ports. We shall commence the tour of the island at the south point, named *Dondra head*, from the violent thunder squalls experienced off it; it is a low point, covered with cocoa-nut trees, near which are the ruins of a Hindoo temple, anciently the most celebrated of the island. Three miles west of the point is Matura, on the *Neel Ganga*, or Blue River, a fort of consequence, with a garrison of 100 Malays, and a little town, inhabited by the descendants of the Dutch. In the vicinity are two cinnamon plantations; and this part of the island is much frequented by elephants. A small island before the river's mouth affords a sheltered landing place for boats, but there is generally a surf across the river. Belligam is a fine bay, with two or three woody islands and a large fishing village. At Cogel is a lagoon, two miles long and one broad, separated from the sea by a narrow bank of sand, which is washed away in the rains, and the lake then discharges its waters into the sea.

Point de Galle, the third town of the island and the second port, has a strong fort, garrisoned by two companies of Europeans and a battalion of natives. It is situated on a peninsular point, and within

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within it are the houses of the Europeans, besides a black town or pettah. The harbour is small but safe, the entrance being by a very narrow channel between rocks; hence large vessels usually prefer anchoring in the road. A great quantity of arrack, coir cordage, cocoa-nut oil, and some pepper, cotton, and cardemums, are exported from hence, as well as cinnamon.

Bentot is a native village, celebrated for its oysters.

Barbareen is also a native village on a cove, which is one of the few places on this coast where an European built boat can load.

Caltura is a small fort on a hill, rising above the banks of the beautiful river Muliwaddy, by which an inland navigation is formed to Columbo. Near the fort is a neat Cingalese village, where a great deal of arrack is made from the cocoa-nut liquor.

Pantura is a village and church, as is Galkisse.

Columbo, the chief place of the island and seat of government, is of considerable extent, and occupies a situation almost entirely insulated; the sea encompassing two-thirds of it, and the rest being bounded by a large fresh water lake: from this position, and there being no hills to command it, it is of considerable strength. The fort is composed of seven bastions, connected by curtains, and mounting 300 pieces of heavy cannon: it is also surrounded by a deep and broad wet ditch, with two draw-bridges. There is a good landing place at a wooden quay, sheltered by a point of rock. Small

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Small craft can lay off this quay at a cable's length distance; but ships of any burden must anchor in the road, which is only safe in the N.E. monsoon. Within the fort are the houses of the Europeans, of one story only, built of stone, and roofed with tiles. The whole has a very handsome appearance, and contains, including the Black town, 50,000 inhabitants. The town labours under the disadvantage of having no good water, which is brought from one mile and a half distance. There are several pleasant rides round the town, with country houses of the Dutch.

Negumbo is a very handsome village, inhabited by a number of Dutch families. It is near the banks of a river, with a small fort, and has an inland navigable communication with Columbo, from which it is distant twenty-four miles. A small island, covered with cocoa-nut trees, is before the river's mouth; and here a part of the objects of commerce is shipped.

Chilau is a considerable village between two branches of a large river. North of it commences a salt lagoon, separated from the sea by the peninsula of Calpentyn, which, in the N.E. monsoon, becomes an island. The lagoon is twenty miles long, and from one to three broad; it abounds in fish, and is the resort of great flocks of aquatic birds, but is also infested with alligators. A great quantity of salt is made in it by solar evaporation. Calpentyn is low and sandy, but covered with cocoa-nut trees, and has a fort and village.

Aripo

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Aripo is a small village south of Manar Island; near it is the only good water on this part of the coast. Manar Island is a mass of sea-sand covered with palmyra trees: on it is a small fort and village.

JAFFNAPATAM is a handsome and considerable town and fort on the north end of the island, from whence is exported a quantity of tobacco, as well as the trunks of the palmyra tree used in building houses, and conque shells;* the latter to Bengal, where the Hindoos cut them into bracelets and use them in their religious ceremonies.

Ascending the east coast of the island from Dondra-head, we meet in succession Tangalle, a fort and village, pleasantly situated on a small bay, with good anchorage. Between this and Batticolo there is no establishment, and but little cultivation. BATTICOLO is a small fort and village on an island, four miles up an inlet of the sea, which extends thirty miles into the country, and is in many places two miles broad, containing many islands and navigable for large boats: a bar, however, crosses the entrance, on which the sea breaks violently in bad weather, and on which there is never more than six feet; yet craft of sixty tons may run over it. The shores of the inlet are level and highly fruitful, and at a considerable distance rise the lofty summits of the Funnel, Friar's Hood, &c. The inlet abounds in fish,

* Murex tritonis. Lin.

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fish, particularly mullet; and from hence Trincomalee and other parts of the island are supplied with rice, cattle, poultry, &c.

Trincomalee, from whose harbour the island of Ceylon derives its principal importance to Great Britain, is situated on the N.E. side of the island, on a great gulf, forming two basins, separated by a neck of land. The southern basin, named Dutch Bay,* is filled with shoals, which prevent its being entered by vessels of burden, but the northern one forms one of the finest harbours of the world, being a large expanse completely land locked, and having many coves and creeks in which the water is as tranquil as in a fish pond, with depth for the largest ships, of which 500 might ride at their anchors clear of each other. On the outside of the peninsula that separates the harbour from the sea, is Back Bay, in which ships usually prefer anchoring in the S.W. monsoon, as it affords them a greater facility of egress and ingress. In the N.E. monsoon this bay is entirely exposed, and in this season its beach is covered with shells of the most beautiful kind, thrown up by the surf. The settlement stands on the peninsula, which terminates in a hilly headland, called Flag-Staff Point. The works command both Back Bay, Dutch Bay, and the harbour: they are chiefly of Portuguese construction, and capable of a long defence. Trincomalee has, however, the disadvantage

* Tamblegam of the natives.

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vantage of being unhealthy, which seems to be partly owing to the rains being here protracted beyond the usual period, and being immediately succeeded by hot sultry weather. It is probable, that if the hills which surround the harbour were cleared of the thick wood that now covers them, and cultivation extended, the climate might be rendered much more healthy. Five or six miles from Trincomalee are several hot springs of the temperature of 98° to 106°, but which seem to have no mineral qualities: they are venerated by the natives.

The great bay of Trincomalee (*Kottiar* of the natives) is on the east of the harbour, and receives several rivers navigable for boats a long way inland.

Trincomalee, though well situated for trade, has no other than that produced by the trifling consumption of the garrison, which is supplied from Madras.

Off the south coast of Ceylon are two dangerous ledges of rocks, named the Great and Little Bassas. The Great is three leagues off shore, and is named Ramanpaaj by the natives of Hindostan; it is a mile in extent, elevated a few feet above the sea, which washes over it in frightful breaking waves. According to the very doubtful tradition of the natives, a pagoda of brass formerly stood on it.

The Little Bassas are seven leagues N.E. of the Great, and are a similar but lesser ledge of rocks.

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There is a channel between these reefs and the main, but ships usually sail outside of them.

The pearl fishery in the Gulf of Manar, which had been abandoned by the Dutch since the year 1768, was again carried on by the English in 1796. The oyster banks are scattered over a space of the gulf, thirty miles from north to south, and twenty-four from east to west. There are fourteen beds, the largest being ten miles in length, the rest much smaller; and they are no otherwise raised above the general bottom of the sea than by the oysters that cover them. The most valuable spots are those of coral: the depth of water over them is three to fifteen fathoms; but the best fishing is in from six to eight fathoms. Previous to a fishery taking place the banks are examined, and if they are found sufficiently productive, a fishery is advertised, and all persons who wish to engage in it are invited to rendezvous at the Bay of Coondaatchy, south of Aripo. The boats and their crews come from Manar, Jaffna, Ramisseram, and the southern part of the Coromandel coast: each boat has twenty-three persons, ten divers, ten persons to haul up the divers, a pilot, a steersman, a boy to bale out the water, and a boat-keeper, with five diving stones and five netted baskets.

The richest spots are marked by buoys; and the fishery commences from the twentieth of February to the first of March, that is, when a sufficiency of boats are collected; their number generally varies between

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between 200 and 300, and an equal number of other boats usually attend with merchandise, &c. The fishery continues for thirty days, at the rate of 150 boats a-day; that is, if seventy-five boats only go out, it is counted but half a-day; and if 300, it is two days. Government sometimes hires the boats, and fishes on its own account; but more generally the fishery is sold to the highest bidder, who is usually a black merchant, and he sub-rents it to others.

In 1796, the fishery was sold for.... £60,000
In 1797, for..... 110,000
In 1798, for..... 140,000
In 1799, the banks being exhausted, only 30,000
In 1806, a partial fishery..... 35,000

When the fishing day arrives the boatmen are awaked from their slumbers at midnight by the beating of *tom-toms* and the firing of a gun; and immediately on the commencement of the land wind, they get into their boats and set sail for the banks, on which they come to anchor and wait for daylight, when each boat chooses its place; and when the sun has warmed the water the diving commences. In order to accelerate the descent a stone of half a hundred weight is attached to a cord with a loop, into which the diver puts his foot, and the other foot into a basket of net-work, kept open by a wooden hoop, which is also suspended to a rope; when thus prepared, he grasps his nostrils with one hand, and detaching the stone by a sudden pull of the slip-knot that held it, instantly sinks. As soon as he is at the bottom

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he disengages his foot from the stone, which is immediately drawn up. The diver loses not a second in collecting whatever he can grasp on the bottom into his basket; and when it is full, he gives a jerk to the rope, which is instantly pulled up: at the same time the diver warps himself up by the rope, and reaches the surface some seconds before the basket, which, besides oysters, often contains pieces of coral, rock, &c. The diver swims about the boat until it is his turn to go down again. The number of oysters brought up is very precarious, sometimes 150, at others only half a dozen. The period the divers remain under water is generally about eighty seconds, and never exceeds two minutes.*

When the sea breeze sets in about one or two o'clock, the signal is made to return to the shore. When arrived there the oysters are conveyed from the boats to a place enclosed with pallisades, where each renter has his spot assigned him, and where his oysters are placed in a heap, to remain ten days, till the fish is putrified, when they are thrown into a canoe filled with salt water, in which they are steeped for twelve hours, to soften the putrid substance and get rid of the maggots, which floating on the surface, are skimmed off. The shells are then washed by naked Coolies, and examined one by one; those which have pearls attached to them

* Captain Perceval says six minutes, Mr. Cordiner, two minutes; and the latter agrees with our own observation, and with the general testimony of those who have attended the fishery.

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them are placed on one side, and the rest thrown away. The slimy substance of the oysters mixed with mud and sand, remains at the bottom of the canoe: the dirty water is then taken up in buckets and strained through a bag that none of the minute pearls may be lost. Clean water is then poured into the canoe and the mud stirred up, when the pearls fall to the bottom and the water and slime runs off by the inclination of the canoe, one end of which is elevated: the sand that remains at the bottom is then spread on cloths to dry, when it is sifted and the pearls picked out. The progress of washing the shells and stirring up of the mud in the canoe, cause the most nauseous stench that can be conceived; but the persons employed in it, from habit, do no seem to feel any disagreeable sensation. The pearls attached to the shells are separated by a forceps and hammer. When the pearls are all collected they are sorted by passing them through ten sieves of different sized round holes, placed each within the other. The pearls are thrown promiscuously into the first sieve, which being shaken, all those pass through that have not a bulk of a large pea; the second sieve retains those the size of a small pea or grain of black pepper, and so on decreasing to the tenth, which receives the most minute or *seed* pearls.

It is usual to sell the pearls without sorting for £80 the pound weight: when sorted, their value increases in the geometrical proportion to their sizes, perfect shape, and colour. The largest, al-

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though generally the least perfect in other respects, are considered by the Indians as the most valuable, and are usually sold to the native princes. The finest of the second class are strung in necklaces and sent to Europe. A necklace of handsome pearls the size of a middling pea costs from £150 to £300, or one guinea each pearl; but one of the size of peppercorns may be had for £15 to £20, or eighteen pence each. Pearls the size of small shot are sold very cheap.

A vast number of black merchants attend the fishery to purchase lots of oysters from the boatmen and divers, who are paid by a proportion of the daily produce. The price of the oysters is usually between two and six for a fanam, and in this lottery as well as in all others, the adventurer sometimes gains a fortune but much oftener he does not clear himself.

The oyster banks abound with sharks, but an accident to the divers is seldom known to occur. This forbearance of these voracious animals is, by the superstitious natives, ascribed to the incantations of the shark-charmers, or jugglers, two of whom are, in a manner *ex officio*, permitted to attend the fishery, and are paid by the boatmen and divers from their share of oysters.

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HINDOSTAN.

THE coast from Cape Ramen to Point Calymere is called the Mariwar and Tondiman: on it are the towns of Tondy and Cottapatam, visited only by the native vessels. On Point Calymere are two pagodas. From the south of this point to the river Coleron is the kingdom of Tanjore; the shore is so low that the heads of the cocoa palms are the first objects seen coming from sea.

Negapatam, an English factory taken from the Dutch in 1781, is near a small creek which has an entrance at either end of an island, and receives the small coasting vessels, who carry on a considerable trade here. North of the fort is a black pagoda, and beyond this five white pagodas, by which the coast is known. The Indian town of Nagore is on a river north of the five pagodas, and is one of the most trading places of the coast, having several vessels of 100 to 200 tons belonging to it and navigated by natives named Chulias, who trade to Sumatra, Malacca, and other places, on the east side of the Bay of Bengal. The exports are piece goods, rice, areka nut, &c. Coromandel.

Karical, formerly a French factory, on a little barred river, has at present no European inhabi-

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Coromandel. tants; its territory extended two leagues on the coast and one inland.

TRANQUEBAR, (*Tirangapuram* of the natives,) the chief establishment of the Danes in India, is on a barred river. The white town is surrounded by a wall and defended by the citadel of Danesborg; the population within the walls is 100 Europeans, 200 half cast, and 8,000 natives; the territory attached to it is ten square leagues and is encompassed by a ditch.

Caverypatam, close to the mouth of a little river, is an Indian village, to which succeeds Devicotta fort on an island in the mouth of the river Coleron or Cavery, which has its source in the Coorga country, and is held in equal veneration with the Ganges by the Hindoos, who perform an annual ceremony on its banks in remembrance of the marriage of the divinity, *Renganadan*, with the goddess of the river. Inland from Devicotta are the four Chalambaram pagodas, two miles from the shore, considered so holy that the Hindoos have a common expression, that to secure a place in heaven, it is only necessary either to be named *Chalambaram*; to make a pilgrimage to *Ramisseram*; or to think of *Jagernaut*. The Chalambaram pagodas occupy a square of half a league, are built entirely of cut stone brought from the Ghauts fifteen leagues distant, and round them is a town inhabited by the attendants of the pagoda, and by those who supply the numerous pilgrims with food and lodging.

Porto Novo (*Perangipetti* of the natives) is a large

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large Indian town on a river navigable by small craft, and has the best road on this coast, being sheltered on the south by a shoal; it is a place of considerable Chulia trade in the same objects as Nagore. The English and Danes keep factors here, but the trade is independent of them.

Cuddalore is a large Indian town on a barred river; water, fresh provisions, chiefly hogs and poultry, and vegetables are procured here in abundance. One mile further north are the ruins of Fort St. David, blown up in 1784 as being useless.

PONDICHERRY, the chief settlement of the French in India, is situated on the river Arian Kupain, which can only receive small vessels in the monsoon rains. Its road is less wild than that of Madras, and landing may occasionally be effected in ships' boats; but the attempt is seldom made, masula boats being always in readiness. The territory belonging to it, when possessed by the French, comprised a space of three leagues along the coast, and one league inland, or about twenty square leagues.

The White town is situated on the beach and contains about eighty European families; it is separated by a ditch, now nearly filled up, from the Pettah or Black town, which is inhabited by about 80,000 natives. The fortifications were formerly equally strong and beautiful, but were partially destroyed on its capture by the English in 1761 and 1778; and in 1793 their destruction was completed,

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Coromandel. completed, so that not a vestige of them now remains.

Three miles behind the settlement the land is so elevated as to be seen eight leagues distant.

Alamparva, a fort given by the native princes to the French in 1750, but taken by the English in 1760, and the works destroyed. It has many wells of good water, which is a singularity on this coast near the sea. The pettah is of considerable size.

Sadras, formerly a Dutch factory, the fort of which was destroyed by the English in 1781, is at the mouth of the Palarra.

The seven Moolivaram, or Mahabalipooram Pagodas, are north of Sadras: four of these are in a valley, at the foot of some high land; the fifth on an elevation; the sixth on the beach; and the seventh, on a rock a quarter of a mile from the shore, is nearly washed away: it was formerly closer to the main, the sea encroaching on this part of the coast.(G.)

Covelong, a native town, where the Ostend East-India Company had a fort, but which has long been a ruin.

St. Thomé, or St. Thomas,* (*Meliapour* of the natives), three miles south of Madras, is an ancient Portuguese establishment, and still chiefly inhabited

* Named from the supposition that St. Thomas suffered martyrdom here. According to William of Malmesbury, the tomb of this saint was visited by the English Bishop of Sherborn, sent by King Alfred in 883.

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ed by the descendants of this nation, who have here a bishop suffragan of the Archbishop of Goa, several churches and a Franciscan convent. Many of the English of Madras also reside here, and the road from it to Madras is one of the usual rides of the Europeans and rich natives. About two miles from the sea is St. Thomas's Mount, a place of pilgrimage of both Catholics, Hindoos, and Mussulmans. Here is an Indian fort, and a botanic garden of the English. Coromandel.

Madras, or Fort St. George, the chief settlement of the English on the Coromandel coast, and second of the three presidencies, is a regular fortification on the beach, one of its bastions being now washed by the waves: it mounts about 2,500 guns, having three tiers towards the sea, where, however, they seem to be of no other use than very inefficiently to protect the ships in the road. Within the fort are all the public offices of the Company, counting-houses of the private traders, *one* church, assembly-room, &c.

The Black Town is separated from the fort by an esplanade, two miles in extent, and is said to contain 80,000 persons; Hindoos, Mussulmans, Armenians, native Portuguese, and a few English, not in the Company's service. It is surrounded by an entrenchment.

The population of Fort St. George and the Black Town, exclusive of Indians, is about 5,000 Europeans, the same number of half cast, and 500 Armenians.

The road of Madras is the worst in India, the shore

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Coromandel. shore being perfectly straight. The swell is at all times considerable, and the surf so great, that ship's boats can never land, and therefore all communication with the shore is by boats of a peculiarly buoyant construction, named *Masula* boats; these are composed of broad boards, the edges sewed together with fibres of coir, without any frame-work, but with *thofts* for the rowers.* All the dexterity and experience of the boatmen (who are bred from their infancy to the business) are sometimes ineffectual, and a year seldom passes without an accident. When the surf is unusually high, a *catamaran*, or raft, of three pieces of wood lashed together, with two men on it, attends the Masula boats with passengers, and has often saved lives when the boat has been swamped. These catamarans, furnished with a sail, are also used for fishing, and go out to sea several leagues with the morning land wind, and return with the sea breeze. Upwards of 1000 species of fish are found at Madras and along the Coromandel coast; but the numbers of each species is not great, doubtless from the agitation of the waters.

To

* The pilots of these boats chaunt a song, to the cadence of which the rowers keep time with their oars, quickening or retarding the motion of the boat according to the nature of the surf. The rowers also join in chorus. The custom of keeping time with the oars to musical sounds, is common to all the Indian nations, and was practised by the ancient Greeks.

> Against the mast the tuneful Orpheus stands,
> Plays to the wearied rowers, and commands
> The thought of toil away. ———
>
> *Statius. Theb.*

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To the south of Madras is a level plain, called the Choultry, where the English have a great number of elegant houses; and at the south extremity of the plain is Chepauk, the palace of the Nabob of Arcot, almost concealed in a grove of trees. Coromandel.

Ennore is a village on a salt lake, eight leagues north of Madras. The lake abounds in fish and oysters; with which latter it supplies the English of Madras, who also make parties of pleasure to fish and sail on the lake.

Pulicat, formerly a Dutch factory, is famous for its handkerchiefs, which find their way to all parts of America, and are the most splendid articles of dress of the females of Mexico and Peru. The fort built by the Dutch is named *Gueldria*; it is now in ruins. A canal is cut from Madras to Pulicat, by which boats convey fire wood to the former, the produce of the elevated land behind Pulicat.

Armagon, or Duraspatam, before the establishment of Madras was the chief settlement of the English on the Coromandel coast, in 1628 being described as mounting twelve guns round the factory, with a guard of twenty-three factors and soldiers.

Kistnapatam, or Kalitore, is a native village, as are Divelan, Carera, and Gondegam; the river of the latter terminates the Coromandel coast, and here begins that of Golconda. The portion of this coast, from 16° 30′ to Chilka Lake, is named the Northern Circars, with reference to the territory of

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Golconda. of Madras, called the Southern Circars; these are financial divisions, introduced by the East India Company.

Mootapilly, a village half a mile inland. Petapilly is a sandy uninhabited island, close to the shore, within which is the native town of Nizampatam.

The Kistna river has its source in the western chain of Ghauts, and after receiving many tributary rivers, empties itself by several branches, forming islands for sixteen leagues along the coast: the mud carried out by it has also created a bank parallel to the shore. The name of *Kistna*, or *Krishna*, signifying black, is that of Vischnu in his ninth incarnation; and hence this river is esteemed sacred by the Hindoos.

Masulapatam is on a branch of the Kistna, which forms the island Ampsac, (named by the natives Ampsac-divi, whence Europeans have given to its most salient projection that of Point Divy). The fort is of considerable strength, and the principal one between Madras and the Ganges. The Black Town is a mile and a half N.W. of the fort, and is surrounded by marshes of the Kistna, the approach to it being by a causeway 2000 yards in length; it is very populous. The fort was taken by storm from the French in 1759.

Narsipore, a native town of little trade, ten leagues north of Masulipatam.

The Godavery rises in the Ghauts, receives other rivers, and divides into two branches, which empty themselves by several mouths. It is considered one

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one of the sacred rivers, and is visited by innumerable pilgrims. Orissa

Yannaon is on a branch of the river, which is crossed by a bar, and forms a small island. Here the French had their chief northern factory for the purchase of piece-goods. The territory of their establishment contains about 6,000 souls.

Coringa, on one of the branches of the Godavery, crossed by a bar, with thirteen feet. This is the only place on the east coast of the peninsula where a ship above two hundred tons can be refitted to any extent during the S.W. monsoon. In this season Coringa Bay is so smooth, that a vessel may be *hove down;* and it is, consequently, a great place for building and repairing country vessels. Up the river is the town of Ingeram, where the Company have a resident for the purpose of collecting piece-goods: this being one of the most manufacturing districts of India.

Jagernaut-Poram, or Cocanara, is a native village; a mile east of which is a barred river, visited by the country craft. Farther north the low coast of Golconda terminates, and a ridge of high mountains commence, which line the coast to Ganjam.

Vizagapatam is on a barred river, with ten feet water, but the channels shift, and there is a considerable surf on it with the ebb tide. Bimlipatam, Chicacole, Calingapatam, Aletor, Poondy, and Berar, are on small barred rivers, little frequented. Ganjam, a small compact English fort on

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Orissa. on the south side of a large river, which is much visited by native trading vessels.

Manikapatam, a mud fort, on the channel into Chilka Lake; which latter extends ten leagues along the coast, and receives one of the great branches of the Mahamady, whose source is in the mountains of Bundelcund. Several other branches farther north form low wooded islands; on one of which is the celebrated pagoda of Jagernaut, composed of three vast buildings, surrounded by many lesser ones. The principal building is entered through a pyramid 344 feet high, loaded with sculpture, and some of the blocks of granite are 10,000 cubic feet. The idol is of wood, with eyes of diamonds; and seventy feet from the pavement, a monstrous bull, in stone, projects from the wall. The three pagodas are surrounded by a wall of vast black stones, without mortar. The presents made to this pagoda by the Hindoo princes and pilgrims surpassed those of Loretto, amounting annually to near a million sterling, upwards of 100,000 pilgrims visiting it annually.

Cuttack river, the principal branch of the Mahamady, has its name from the town of Cuttack, a considerable distance inland.

Point Palmyras, the south point of Balasore bay, is a low point covered with palm trees, and on each side of it a river, that on the south being navigable for small vessels. The bay of Balasore has but little depth, from the elevation of the bottom

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bottom by the sand carried out by the stream of the Ganges, so that three leaguess off shore there is not above seven or eight fathoms, and in some places the banks dry at low water half a mile from the shore. Orissa.

The shores of Balasore bay are low and planted with cocoa palms. They are intersected by many rivers, or creeks; of these Kanak river, two leagues N.W. of Point Palmyras, is much frequented by the native trading vessels, who carry rice to Madras in the N.E. monsoon. Balasore, on the river Berry-Bellam, is also a place of considerable native trade, and has English, Dutch, and French factories; besides its general mass of Hindoo inhabitants, it has many Portuguese and Armenians. Vessels of 100 tons enter the river at high water. Balasore road is the usual station of the pilot vessels, from whom pilots are taken by all vessels bound to Calcutta. Pipley and Ingellee are villages on the N.E. shore of Balasore bay. The province of Bengal is considered to commence at Pipley creek or river.

The GANGES, called by the natives *Padda* and *Burra-Ganga*, or the Great River, is formed by two streams which have their sources in the mountains of Thibet. Both streams take a western course, inclining to the north until they meet the great ridge of Mount Himmaleh, which turns them off to the south, and in this latter course Bengal.

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Bengal. they unite and form the Ganges. This great body of water forces a passage through the opposing ridge of Himmaleh wich it pierces, and precipitates itself through a cavern into a bason worn in the rock at the hither foot of the mountain. The Hindoos, from the fancied resemblance of the cavern to the mouth of a cow, venerate the rivet which issues from it in the same degree as that animal. From this second source the river winds through the rugged country of Sirinagur, until at Hurdwar it finally escapes through an opening from the mountainous tract, and enters the plains of Bengal, after a course of 800 miles. The breadth and depth of the river in its course through Bengal greatly vary, the former from three miles to half a mile, and in some places it is fordable; but for 500 miles from the sea, the depth in the channel is 30 feet, when the river is lowest; the current in the dry season runs three miles an hour and five miles in the wet.

At 300 miles from the sea the Ganges separates into two great branches, which in their course to the sea diverge from each other and form a delta, whose base on the coast is 200 miles: and in which there are near twenty openings; the whole of the delta towards the sea being composed of low alluvion islands covered with wood named *sundry*, whence the tract is called the *Sunderbunds*.

The western branch of the Ganges is again subdivided into lesser branches, the two westernmost of which, named the Cossimbuzar and Jellinghee,

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linghee, again unite, and take the name of the Hoogly, or Hughley, to the sea; this is the only branch of the Ganges navigable by large vessels to the head of the delta. Bengal.

Before the entrance of the Hoogly are two long sands, called the eastern and western sea reefs, and several others; and after entering the river the navigation is not less dangerous from numerous shifting banks, which require to be constantly visited in order to ascertain the channels; and hence the system of pilotage is here carried to a degree of perfection, unknown in any other part of the world.

The Ganges begins to rise in April, and at the end of July overflows the low land 100 miles from its banks, the rise being thirty-one feet. Towards the middle of August it begins to subside, and in October has returned to its bed, leaving a fertile mud on the lands it has inundated; and this benefit, as well as its majestic aspect, in some measure excuses the divine honours it receives from the Hindoos.

In addition to the numerous banks, the navigation of the Hoogly is at times rendered dangerous by the phenomenon named a bore, caused by the increased rapidity of the stream from heavy rains; to overcome which an extraordinary effort is made by the first of the flood, and this opposition produces an elevation of the water which rushes up the river with a force that nothing can withstand, tearing ships from their anchors, and carrying

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Bengal. them on the banks of hard sand,* where such is the power of the stream, that the moment they touch the ground they fall over and lose all their masts. It is even said, that instances have occurred of small vessels having been rolled over a bank *keel over deck*, without other damage than the loss of masts, nor is this improbable, when it is considered that the velocity of the bore is twenty miles an hour, and the elevation of the ridge of water in rushing over the banks twelve to fifteen feet. The noise that accompanies it is equal to that of a vast cataract. It commences about eighty miles below Calcutta, and is felt up to Hoogly.

In ascending the Hoogly, Sagor Island is passed on the right hand: it is long, low, covered with wood, and the retreat of tigers and alligators. The channel is close to this island, and though the river here is but twelve miles broad, the opposite shore is so low, that it is not seen till abreast of Ingellee. The next place to this latter, on the same bank, is Kedjeree, a village, before which ships of war usually anchor, and where the large Indiamen complete their cargoes, there not being water sufficient for them in the channels to Calcutta when loaded. Culpee, Diamond Harbour, and Fulta, succeed on the left bank. The two first are roads for shipping, where they anchor out of the

* The banks are all a kind of quicksand, but in the channels the bottom is mud.

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the stream. The banks of the river thus far are monotonous, being chiefly rice grounds. Fulta, above Diamond Harbour on the same bank, is a handsome village, which supplies shipping with fresh provisions and vegetables. Here the views on the river begin to grow interesting, particularly the left bank, which offers a continual succession of elegant country houses of the English, up to Fort William, which stands on the bank of the river, and resembles a handsome town surrounded by fortifications. It has many large squares and gravel walks lined with trees; a fine armoury, with arms for 1,000 men, and all the necessary establishments of a fortress of the first class, particularly a foundery of heavy canon. Bengal.

Half a mile above Fort William is Calcutta, the intermediate space is the esplanade. CALCUTTA, following the windings of the river, is 100 miles from the sea. It is the residence of the Supreme Government of British India, and as well by its extent as its magnificence, is worthy to be the metropolis of this vast empire. The houses of the Europeans are built chiefly in the Greek style of architecture, and are equally elegant, commodious, and adapted to the climate. The Pettah, or Black Town, on the contrary, is composed of wretched hovels of brick or clay, with narrow and dirty streets. The government-house, as it is modestly called, is a most magnificent palace, constructed at a vast expense, in the government of Lord Wellesley; but it is worthy of remark, that Calcutta has only two Protestant

 churches,

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Bengal. churches, while the Portuguese Catholic places of worship, mosques, and pagodas are innumerable. It has, however, a handsome theatre, assembly-rooms, exchange, and other public buildings of amusement or business.

The old fort, built by the English in 1696, is now used as a custom-house; in it is the too famous *black-hole*, in which 123 out of 140 English perished miserably, by suffocation, in 1756. A small column perpetuates the memory of this horrid event, and the cruelty of Surajah Dowla. The population of Calcutta is estimated at 700,000. It has a society of Arts, Sciences, and Belles Letters, a botanic-garden, and other public institutions. The air is not esteemed healthy, there being many stagnant waters and marshes in the neighbourhood, and besides the thick groves of fruit-trees that surround the town, prevent the free circulation of air.

Calcutta has many private ship-building establishments, where vessels of 1,000 tons are constructed in the best and most finished manner.

Ascending the river from Calcutta we meet Barnagore, a village on the east bank, where the Dutch had formerly a post. Serampore, on the right bank, ten miles above Calcutta, is a Danish establishment of little consequence, consisting of a few factors' houses, and a native village, with a battery for saluting.

Bankibazar, where the Ostend East-India Company had a factory, is three miles above Serampore on the left bank; it is a native village.

CHANDER-

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CHANDERNAGORE, on the west bank, a French establishment, consists of two streets parallel to the river, a mile in length, and intersected by others. The fort destroyed by the English is still in ruins. Bengal.

CHINSURAH, the principal establishment of the Dutch in Bengal, is also on the west bank; it is a straggling town with many good houses, and surrounded by a rampart. The fort named Gustavus is in ruins, and the only cannon are on a battery for saluting.

Hoogly is a native town two miles above Chinsurah, extending three miles along the river, with a mud fort in ruins. Bandel, a native village of considerable extent three miles above Hoogly; the Portuguese have an insignificant establishment here.

From the mouth of the Hoogly to the Eastern branch of the Ganges the coast is, as we have observed, a delta of low alluvion islands, separated by upwards of twenty mouths of the Ganges, and intersected in every direction by creeks, forming an inland navigation, but little known to Europeans. The only inhabitants of these islands are the Mollingaho, or collectors of salt (which is formed in great quantities by solar evaporation), an inoffensive race, who cheerfully afford all the assistance in their power to ships that mistake or necessity sends amongst them; this assistance consists in the supply of rice and a little water, for the Sunderbunds are very scantily

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Bengal. tily supplied, and only from the rains, with this last object. These people also possess fowls, but they will not part with them, being destined as propitiary sacrifices to the *Gangie Sahib*, or God of the Woods, to protect them from wild beasts. Many of these fowls stray from the salt works and become wild, and are frequently heard crowing in the woods, which may lead to the supposition of habitations being near, and induce persons unacquainted to go in quest of them, when instead of fellow creatures they are likely to meet the blood-thirsty tiger or leopard.

The Burrampooter has its name by a corruption of the Sanscrit *Brahma-pooter*, the son of Brahma; it rises on the opposite side of the same ridge as the Ganges, and first takes a directly opposite course to this latter, that is to the east, winding through Thibet with a rapid stream, washing the border of the territory of Lahsa, and then deviating to the S.E., approaches within 200 miles of the western Chinese province of Yunan; hence it turns suddenly to the west through Assam, and enters Bengal on its N.E. frontier. After its entry into this province it flows round the Garrow mountains; then altering its course to the south, it meets the Ganges about forty miles from the sea, after a course of above 2,000 miles. For the last sixty miles before its junction with the Ganges its stream has a regular breadth of four or five miles, and from hence to the sea it has the name of the Megna, from a river much less than itself which falls into it. It overflows

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overflows, and is subject to a bore similar to, but less violent than that of the Hoogly.

Between the eastern mouth of the Ganges and the territory of Aracan is the coast of Chittagong, under the Bengal government. The easternmost of the islands before the mouth of the Megna is named Sundeep; it is fertile, abounding in bullocks, and free from tigers. On the west side is a town, and south of this latter a creek, forming a good harbour. Chittagong.

Islamabad, the principal town on the coast of Chittagong, is two leagues and a half up a river; it is inhabited by many *country* Portuguese; it has some trade and building places, where large ships are constructed. Canvas is also manufactured here of hemp grown in the territory.

Kuttubdea island, south of Islamabad river, is four leagues long, low and woody. On the east side are several creeks, one of which, named Pilot Cotta, divides the island in two, but its western entrance from the sea is crossed by a bar with only five feet. On the south side of the island is fresh water. Mascall island, south of Kuttubdea, is larger and more elevated.

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INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

The great region of southern Asia, between Bengal and China, is in general distinguished by the name of the *Farther Peninsula*, or Peninsula *beyond* the Ganges, though, properly speaking, it is no more a peninsula than Hindostan. A recent geographer has proposed the general denomination of *Indo-China* for this region, founded on the nations that inhabit it having strong physical and moral resemblances to the Chinese, and several of the countries that compose it having been at different epochs under the dominion of China. It will, however, be more convenient to our manner of description to divide this region into the *Empire* of the *Birmans*, the *Malay* Peninsula, and the *Empire* of *Cochin China*, which also appear to be the present political divisions.

This region was almost entirely unknown to the ancients, whose knowledge, as we have already noticed in the Introduction, did not extend beyond a great gulf (*Magnus Sinus*), bounded by the *Aurea Chersonesus*. Several geographers considering this latter to be the Malay peninsula, necessarily supposed the *great gulf* to be that of Siam: but a stricter critical examination confines the probable

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probable knowledge of the ancients to the gulf of Martaban.*

On the arrival of the Portuguese in India, the maritime region on the gulf of Bengal was divided into three sovereignties: 1st. that of Aracan, or *Rokhang*, from the Ganges to Cape Negrais; Pegu, or *Bagoo*, from this cape to Martaban, and Siam from the latter to Tanasserim, near which commences the Malay peninsula. Siam also extended on the China sea to Cambodia. The limits of these several states have since this period varied in their wars, according to the vicissitudes of victory or defeat, and latterly the whole have been brought under one dominion, named the empire of the Birmans. In all this region the religion of Budha, variously modified, prevails, and the vulgar dialects are derived from the monosyllabic languages of Thibet and China.

The Portuguese on becoming masters of Malacca extended their influence to the neighbouring countries, particularly by aiding the native princes in their wars; and the English and Dutch, who succeeded, were permitted to form factories, and to carry on an unrestrained trade. From some misconduct they were, however, deprived of these privileges, and Europeans were forbidden to enter the country. Many years after this expulsion the English and French again received permission to form commercial establishments in the territory of Pegu, and both continued for some time to have a factory

* Introduction, Vol. I. p. 110.

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factory at Syrian, and the English another at the isle of Negrais.

In the middle of the last century a sanguinary war was long waged between the Birmans, or people of Ava, and those of Pegu, in which the English and French, by their wavering and double dealing, again lost their footing in these countries, and since this period the connexion between the English and them has been confined to the speculations of private individuals, who visit Rangoon for teak timber, which is paid for in the merchandize of western India, to the amount of £200,000 a year.

Aracan. The kingdom of Aracan comprises a valley between Ava and Bengal, through which runs a considerable navigable river.* The coast is in general mountainous and rugged, overrun with wood, and with few appearances of inhabitants, and those who are met with are unfriendly; hence this coast is seldom visited by Europeans, though it is said to afford objects of commerce, particularly rice, salt, ivory, and wax.

The river of Aracan is one of the most considerable of India towards its mouth, but the upper part of its course is little known. The town of Aracan is some distance up the river, and is of little consequence, having few houses except what are within the fort, consisting of three squares,

* The Naff, a considerable river, separates Aracan from the English territory, and on the south it extends to the island of Cheduba.

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squares, one within the other, and each surrounded by a brick wall, twelve to fourteen feet high and eight feet thick. Large boats only can ascend to the fort, in which is the residence of the Rajah, or chief, built of bamboo and straw. Aracan.

The places which attract notice in sailing along the coast are the Batanga, or Broken Islands, a mountainous and rocky cluster before the mouth of Aracan river, which are the resort of pirates and robbers; and Cheduba Island, further south, which is eight leagues long, elevated and fertile, abounding in all kind of provisions, beef excepted, the veneration for the cow species preventing one of these animals being brought to market. The island is governed by a Rajah, dependent on the governor of Aracan, and has a considerable town. South of Cheduba is Ramree Island, also fertile and well peopled, and with a good harbour; these islands were the resort of French privateers infesting the bay of Bengal.

South East of Ramree on the main a chain of mountains terminates what in the sea charts is called the coast of Aracan, and beyond which to the south commences *their* coast of Ava. This latter name however seems to be improperly applied, Ava being an inland country, bounded by Aracan on the west and by Pegu on the south; this tract of coast, therefore, properly belongs to the latter. As far as Cape Negrais it is tolerably elevated and craggy, with cliffs of red earth lining the shore, and covered with small trees and brushwood. It has several bays, but no known port, Pegu.

and

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Pegu. and is lined with islands and shoals; the people are also unfriendly.

The coast of Pegu continues round Cape Negrais, and forms the north coast of the gulf of Martaban, the N.W. point of which is named Pagoda Point, from one of those buildings on it, and is five miles S.E. of Cape Negrais. The whole of this coast is composed of low islands, formed by the alluvion of the great river of Ava, Irawaddy, or Irabatty, whose mud has also raised the bottom to such a degree, that a ship may be aground out of sight of land. The stream of the river also creates strong and dangerous currents; the tide of flood comes from the west, and the rise is thirty feet.

The source of the Irabatty is still unknown, but it is navigable for upwards of 700 miles. In June, July, and August it winds over its sandy bed, a slow and sluggish stream; but when the rain commences it swells, overflows the country for thirty leagues, and rolls out a vast volume of water with a rapid current.

The west branch of this river is named Persaim, or Bassein, from a town of the same name on the left bank. In its entrance is the isle of Negrais, on which the English had a factory, and which leaves a ship channel on each side.

Diamond Island, nine leagues S.S.E. of Cape Negrais, is low, a mile and a half long, covered with trees, uninhabited, and lined by a sandy beach, the resort of green turtle.

The river of Pegu, according to some accounts, has

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has its source in a ridge of hills not far from the sea and communicates with the river of Ava, like which latter it is subject to an annual inundation. Its mouth is crossed by a bar with but two fathoms at low water; the tide however rises twenty feet, and within the bar the depth is six fathoms, and the navigation unimpeded up to RANGOOR seven or eight leagues. This town contains 80,000 inhabitants, and is surrounded by pallisades and a fosse, with a battery of twelve guns. The houses are raised off the ground on posts, and are built of timber and bamboos: the streets though narrow are paved and kept very clean.

Rangoon is one of the principal retreats of insolvent debtors from all parts of India, who subsist by carrying on some commerce; and hence there is a strange medley of nations and characters: Malabars, Moors, Parsees, Armenians, Portuguese, French, and English. The river is particularly adapted for ship-building, the banks being soft, the rise of tide great, and the country abounding with teak timber; hence many ships from 900 tons downwards have been built here for the merchants of British India.

Syrian, on a branch of the Pegu river, was formerly the place most frequented by Europeans, who had factories here.

PEGU, ninety miles above Rangoon, is also a considerable town of wood with a fort, and celebrated pagoda of *Shoemadoo*.

The great river Thaluayan, or Martiban, (the *Sitang* of marine charts) empties itself into the angle

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Pegu. angle of the Gulf of Martaban; its source is unknown, but as well as that of the Irabatty, is probably on the mountains of Thibet. It separates the low alluvion lands of Pegu from the high land, named in the charts, the coast of Martaban, though the territory of Pegu extends farther south to the latitude of twenty degrees.

Siam. The kingdom of Siam extends on the Gulf of Bengal from the latitude 20° to the isthmus of the Malacca Peninsula in 10°. This coast is lined by a chain of high rocky islands, apparently affording many good ports, but it being seldom visited it is imperfectly known. The Siamese approach nearer to the Chinese, both in their appearance and customs, than the Birmans, by whom the greater part of their country has been subjugated; though it appears that a portion of it still remains independant. The only places on the west coast known to Europeans, are Tavay, a town eight or nine leagues up a river, encumbered with islands, Mergui town is six miles up Tanasserim river and is accessible to small vessels over a bar: the French had formerly a factory here. Tanasserim is twenty miles higher up the river, and is a great native trading place but seldom visited by Europeans.

The Mergui Archipelago forms a connected chain, extending 135 miles along the coast of Tanasserim between the latitude 11° 25′ and 9° 5′. The channel between it and the main is from five to ten leagues wide; and the islands are separated by narrow but deep straits. They are diversified

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diversified, some being hilly and rocky, others level, but all generally covered with wood, amongst which is the *poon* used in India for ship's masts. The animals seem to be wild hogs and deer; fish is abundant, and the rocks are covered with small delicate oysters. The productions for commerce are *dammer*, edible birds' nests, *biche de mer*, slate and marble. Among the islands are many excellent harbours, in which the tide rises twelve feet. The northern and southern islands, named Domel and St. Mathew, are the largest, and on the north end of the latter is the harbour of Hastings, capacious and safe.

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THE MALAY PENINSULA.

SOUTH-east of Siam is the peninsula of MALACCA or MALAYA, 200 leagues long and forty greatest breadth.* The interior is occupied by mountains covered with impenetrable forests and apparently almost uninhabited; the highest summit is that named Mount Ophir, S.E. of Malacca. These mountains contain tin mines and give rise to numerous rivers, most of which are navigable by small vessels, and some of them for vessels of burden. The coasts seem to be divided into seven petty sovereignties, of which Queda, Pera, Salangore are on the west; Johore at the east extremity; and Pahang, Tringano and Patany on the east. The first place on the west coast is Bangri in 9°; it has a considerable native trade, but is seldom visited by Europeans.

Janseylan, or Junkseylon, is a considerable island, extending forty miles in length north and south, and fifteen in breadth; it is united to the main by a low sandy bank, one mile long and half a mile broad, overflowed every high water, and forming on the north the harbour of Papra, whose

* The absolute limit of the Malay peninsula is undefined; the narrow tract that separates the Bay of Bengal from the Gulf of Siam is called the isthmus of Kraw; its least breadth in latitude 10° is about twenty leagues.

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whose entrance is crossed by a bar, on which is twenty feet high water springs, the rise of tide being ten feet. The island rises in moderately elevated hills covered with wood; and has many brooks, which empty themselves into the sea through mangrove marshes. The interior of the island is well cultivated, and has wild hogs and deer: the domestic animals are bullocks, buffaloes and goats; poultry is not abundant. The inhabitants are Siamese, and about 12,000 in number. The Birmans made some unsuccessful attempts to get possession of this island, which at present seems to be dependent on the Siamese government on the main land within it.

The islands south of Janseylan are Pulo Panjang, or Long island, eight leagues long and two broad, fertile and pleasant.

Pulo Bouton and Pulo Balam, two large and high islands, one of which has a domed summit seen twenty leagues. Pulo Pera, a high round barren rock, nearly in mid-channel of the entrance of the strait of Malacca, and the usual point of departure from the strait.

Pulo Lancavy, a large island close to the main.

Pulo Ladda, or Pepper Island, five leagues from the main, and opposite the navigable river Purlis. It is inhabited by piratical Malays; but is very convenient for wooding and watering. On the E. and S.W. sides are good harbours.

Queda, or Qualla Batrang, one of the chief trading places of the peninsula, is in 6° north. Its river's mouth is crossed by a mud bank with twelve

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feet water at spring tides, but vessels of 300 tons can ascend it. The banks of the river are swampy, and covered with jungle towards its mouth. Seven miles up it is a brick fort and village, named Allestar, the residence of the Rajah. It contains about 300 houses, inhabited by Chinese,* Malays, and Chulias. Its trade has greatly declined since the establishment of Prince of Wales's Island. Provisions, particularly bullocks and poultry, with fruit and vegetables, are abundant here.

Qualla Moorba, six leagues south of Queda, is a large, deep, and rapid river, with a great sand bank before it; it descends from mountains abounding in tin. Pry River succeeds, and has a Malay town at its entrance, which, together with a district eighteen miles up the river, and three miles in breadth, was ceded in 1800 by the Rajah of Queda to the East India Company, and is dependant on Prince of Wales's Island.

Prince of Wales's Island, Pulo Pinang, or Betelnut Island of the Malays, is separated from the Malay shore by a channel, in the narrowest part two miles broad, which forms an excellent harbour, being sheltered from all winds but the north, which never blows with any violence. The north entrance is crossed by a mud bank, on which the least

* Chinese are found established in almost all the principal Malay towns. See hereafter Prince of Wales's Island, Batavia, &c.

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least water is four fathoms, and the most, four fathoms and a half, but it deepens within to fourteen fathoms. The south channel is obstructed by mud banks, but which are buoyed, and leave a safe channel with three fathoms and a half.

The island is five leagues long, and two to three broad. On the north west it rises in high hills, covered with large trees; on the east side is an extent of level ground well cultivated. The island has two rivers considerable for its size. That called Paz winds through the level part of the island for twenty miles; its mouth is crossed by a mud bank with twelve feet in the springs, but boats can ascend it a considerable way. The second river, called Taloo Moodoo, is a rapid torrent stream that often overflows; its mouth is crossed by a sand bank.

Fort Cornwallis is situated on the N.E. point of the island, and though considerable sums have been expended on it, is little more than a sufficient defence against the Malays, and is incapable of any resistance to a regular attack by European tactics. The town, named George Town by the English, and Panjang Panaique by the Malays, is of considerable extent; the streets wide and straight, with many good houses. A river runs close past it, and it has a good wharf for loaded boats, to which water is coveyed by pipes. A government house, a jail, a church, and several bridges have been latterly built, and other improvements executed.

Pulo Pinang was granted by the King of Queda,

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1787, to Captain Light, who married his daughter, and transferred to the East India Company. Its situation rendering it an eligible rendezvous for the British China trade, as well as a retreat for the King's ships when obliged to quit the Coromandel coast in the monsoon, a small detachment of troops was sent from Bengal to occupy it; and several English merchants, engaged in the Malay trade, making it their depot, it rapidly increased in population, particularly by the arrival of Chinese and Malays. In 1805 it was erected into a separate government, and a large establishment appointed to it. In 1801 the population was 10,000, exclusive of Europeans and military; of those 2,000 are Chinese, who chiefly follow the mechanical trades and shopkeeping, while the Malays, who constitute the mass of the remaining population, cultivate the soil, and chiefly pepper, rice, areca, and cocoa palms.

Though situated within five degrees of the equator, the climate of Prince of Wales's Island is remarkably temperate: the sea breeze that blows regularly throughout the day moderates the heat, and the vapours collected by the woody mountains condense in the night in heavy dews, that perpetuate a verdant herbage, unknown in southern India. One of the mountains rises with a steep ascent to a considerable elevation, and on its summit, which forms a platform of forty yards in diameter, is a signal-house. The thermometer at this elevation seldom rises above 75°, and in the night falls to 60°. At the town the extremes are 85° and

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85° and 75°. Among several waterfalls which this beautiful island possesses, one in particular attracts the notice of travellers, by its wildly picturesque effect: it precipitates itself down a rocky precipice into a natural basin, surrounded by perpendicular walls of rock, whose craggy projections are covered with lofty trees and evergreen shrubs, and forming a fit retreat for Diana and her nymphs, or for Thomson's more interesting Musidora, "to taste the lucid coolness of the flood."

Pinang has no beasts of prey, nor any wild quadrupeds but wild hogs, the little animal named hog deer*, and the bandicoot, a species of rat. Alligators are very numerous, and the termites, or white ants, are here peculiarly destructive. Pinang is abundantly supplied with poultry from the opposite coast, from whence are also brought buffaloes for draft, and horses are procured from Sumatra. The sheep for the tables of the English come from Bengal. Fruits are extremely plenty, particularly pine-apples, which grow wild, shaddocks, oranges, limes, &c.

The harbour abounds in fish, principally of the flat kind. The rocks are covered with a delicate small oyster, and on the banks, before the entrance of the rivers, common oysters are found. In short, there is nothing wanting to render this island the most pleasant residence in India.

A building-yard has latterly been established at

* Baba-Roussa of the Malays.

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Pinang, and a ship of war and Indiaman of 1000 tons have been built here, the principal part of the timber being brought from Pegu. The rise of tide is nine feet.

Laroot River seems to be a great inlet of the sea, as well as the river Pera, which latter is twenty leagues south of Prince of Wales's Island, and is crossed by a sand bar with ten and twelve feet, but within which the bottom is mud, and the navigation without obstacle. The Dutch had formerly a factory on this river, to secure the monopoly of its tin trade. Opposite the river's mouth are the islands Dingding and Sambelongs, or Nine Islands. On the east side of the former are the ruins of a Dutch fort, where is a good watering-place. The Arroas are two groups of rocky islets, covered with the tree named by the Malays caioo-aroo, resembling the fir, and which grows chiefly in the sea marshes. These islands are frequented by the Malays to fish and procure turtle. On the N.E. side of the *Long* Arroa is a fine sandy beach, with a run of good water.

Pulo Jarra and Pulo Varella are two small islands, in the *fair way* of the Strait of Malacca: the former nearest the Malay shore, and the latter near that of Sumatra.

Salangore, a Malay town and fort, on the south bank of a river, navigable at high water for vessels of considerable size: it was formerly a great Malay trading place for tin, but the vicinity of Prince of Wales's Island has destroyed its commerce.

MALACCA is situated at the mouth of the small river

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river Crysorant, which can only be entered by the Malay proas. The fort or citadel of St. Paul, built by the Portuguese, is on an elevation on the left bank of the river, and contains all the government buildings, and a garrison of 500 troops. The town on the opposite side of the river (which is crossed by a bridge of several arches) is surrounded by entrenchments, to protect it from the Malays: it contains about 100 Europeans, 250 half cast, 5,000 Chinese, 6,000 Malays, and 600 Chulias. The road is entirely open, and large ships are obliged to anchor three miles from the town, from the shoalness of the water closer in. The country a little way inland is hilly, and to the east of the town rises the lofty mountain of Ledang, also called Queen's Mountain, and Ophir. The land near the shore is low, and thickly covered with wood, which it might be supposed would render the town unhealthy; on the contrary, however, it is one of the most healthy places of India, in no part of which are there more instances of longevity. Malacca was formerly a great trading place for tin, but which is now carried to Prince of Wales's Island. It is, however, an excellent place for ships to touch at, provisions being in great abundance, and fruits in an unparalleled profusion and variety. Amongst them is the delicious mangustine, of which this seems to be the western limit.

Johore River is near the extremity of the Malay peninsula: it is of considerable size, with two channels in, formed by the large island of Sincapore.

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pore. The town where the Rajah resides is twenty miles up the river, and is a considerable Malay native trading place, but seldom visited by Europeans.

Point Romania, *Oojong-Tanah* of the Malays, is the S.E. point of the peninsula, and is a low point with a hummock, named Mount Barbucet, west of it. Off it is a cluster of rocky islets, and on the west side of the point is Romania River, with but two or three feet in its narrow entrance at low water.

Point Romania is also the east limit of the Strait of Sincapore, which forms the communication between the Strait of Malacca and the China Sea. This extremity of the peninsula is uninhabited and covered with wood, the retreat of wild elephants, buffaloes, deer, hogs, monkies, peacocks, &c. The rivers are full of alligators and guanas, and the rocks covered with oysters. In the middle of the Strait of Sincapore is Pedro Branco, or the White Rock, named from its being whitened by the dung of sea-birds. It is surrounded by sunken rocks.

China Sea. From Point Romania, for a considerable way to the north, the coast is low, woody, and lined with a sandy beach, without any place of note, but has several islands off it, the southernmost of which is Pulo Tingy, rising in a very high cone: its few inhabitants have their huts on the north side, amongst plantations of cocoa-nuts and plantation trees, and on the south side is a watering place.

Pulo Aore (Wawoor) is small, and formed of two

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two hills separated by a gap, so as to make like two islands. It is covered with wood, and on the S.W. side is a good bay, with a Malay village, but nothing is to be got here except wood, water, and cocoa-nuts.

Pulo Pisang (plantain), or Pambeelen, is like Pulo Aore formed of two hills, but less and lower: it is uninhabited.

Pulo Timoan, or Teoman, the largest island on this coast, is ten miles long and four broad; at its south extremity is a double peaked mountain, named by seaman the Asses Ears. It has two good sandy bays, one on the S.E. where is a Malay village, and the other on the S.W. with good anchorage and fresh water.

Pulo Varella, ten leagues north of Timoan, is a barren rock with only a few bushes. Abreast of it on the main, the low land finishes, and a chain of high mountains commences, and extends to Pulo Capas. In this extent of coast are Pahang, formerly a great Malay trading place, exporting rattans, areca, and gold dust. Tingoran, another Malay place of trade; the coast here again becomes low, and we meet with Tringano, a considerable town on a river which may be entered by vessels of twelve feet, and ascended by small craft three leagues: it is a great Malay trading place, exporting by country proas pepper, wax, dammer, and some gold dust found in the sands of the torrents. Calantan River, farther north, is also a place of Malay trade. Between it and Tringano are the Reding Islands, a chain ten leagues long,

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long, parallel to the main; they are inhabited, afford pepper, rattans, &c. but having no port are seldom visited by Europeans.

Patany, on a bay north of a cape of the same name, was formerly much frequented by the Portuguese, and the English had a factory here at the beginning of the seventeenth century. The town is surrounded by a pallisade, and has a good port. The Chinese settled here have some trade in their own vessels to Siam, Cochin China, China, and Batavia.

Siam. The Gulf of SIAM is bounded on the west and north by the Malay Peninsula and Siam, and on the east by Cambodia, extending between the latitudes 9° and 14°, its entrance being between Cape Patany and Cambodia Point. The River Meinam (Mother of Waters), or of Siam, falls into the head of the gulf; it is thought to rise in the same mountains as the Ganges; is deep, rapid, and always full. It overflows in September, and returns to its bed in December. The soil near its banks is composed of its mud, and forms vast rice marshes. There are two channels into the river at either side of a low island. The western branch is the largest, and has eight or nine feet at low water, and eighteen feet at high water springs. On the eastern branch, ten leagues up, is Bankok, a fortified town; and fourteen leagues farther is the capital of the country, named JUTHIA (a Portuguese corruption of the native name *Siyuthia*), which resembles a Chinese town. It is situated on a flat, intersected by canals from the river, crossed by a great number of bridges of stone and wood,

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wood, and the communication from different parts of the town is by boats. The streets run parallel to the canals, with smaller intersecting ones; some of them are large, but the greater number very narrow and dirty, and many of them are overflowed in the spring tides. Many Chinese and Moors from India reside here, and their houses are of stone or brick, very low, and covered with tiles. The houses of the Siamese are like those of the Malays, of timber and bamboo, covered with palm tree leaves. The town is surrounded by a brick wall, and defended by some batteries. In the city are three palaces, vast stables for the King's elephants, and many temples; and on the river are a great number of floating houses. On the south bank of the river, below the city, was the Dutch factory, handsomely built, and lower down are villages of Japanese, Malays, and Indian Portuguese.

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EMPIRE OF COCHIN-CHINA.

THE new empire of COCHIN-CHINA comprehends a considerable portion of the region of Indo-China, including the maritime countries of Cambodia, Tsiompa, Cochin-China, and Tonquin.

Cambodia. On the east side of the Gulf of Siam in Cambodia, the only place of any note is Concao, in about 10° N. on the site of a city named Ponthemas, destroyed by the Siamesein 1717. This place is frequented by the trading vessels of Cochin-China and China.

The south coast of Cambodia is all very low and covered with small trees, and is evidently formed by the retreat of the sea and the alluvion of rivers, the soil being composed of mud, sand, sea-shells, and other remains of marine animals: it has much stagnant water, an extreme activity of vegetation, and a humid and relaxing atmosphere. The water is so shallow near the coast, that boats cannot approach it within two miles. Cambodia Point is the south point of Cambodia, and the east of the Gulf of Siam. Five leagues south of it is Pulo Oby, some miles in extent and formed of several hills, the centre one rising to a height to be seen eighteen leagues. The inhabitants are a few banished families from the main, who

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who cultivate rice and maize enough for their subsistence. A stream of fine water descends from the great mountain, and empties itself into the sea on the north, where 100 butts of water may be filled in a day. As water is in the dry season very scarce on the opposite coast, a number of junks are kept constantly employed in supplying it from this stream. Cambodia.

The river of Cambodia, or of Mey-Kong, is generally thought to have its source in the mountains of Thibet, and to run 1,500 miles almost in a straight line from north to south. It empties itself by three principal mouths in latitude 10°. The westernmost is named Bransaab, or Matsiam, and is the most considerable; its mouth is crossed by a bar with fourteen to eighteen feet high water springs. The city of Cambodia, named by the natives Elnook, is eighty leagues up this branch, and consists only of one street and one pagoda.

The second branch of the river is called the Japanese Branch, from its having been formerly frequented by Japanese junks; and the third is the river of Saigong of the sea-charts. The tide runs a long way up this river, which is also said to receive the waters of a great inland lake, and to overflow in the month of June. The city of Saigong is forty miles from the river's mouth, and is at present the chief port of the empire of Cochin-China, and where the vessels of war are built, the banks of the river abounding in the finest timber. The Portuguese of Macao have a regular trade with this port.

Pulo

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Cambodia. Pulo Condore is a group of islands twenty leagues distant from the coast of Cambodia. The largest island is three leagues long and one broad, and is surrounded by many small but high islands, covered with trees. The large island rises in hills to the elevation of 1,800 feet, and is inhabited by Cochin-Chinese. On the S.E. is a village in a large bay, and on the west side is a good harbour, within some lesser islands. Fruit, fish, wood, and water, are the only objects procurable here. The English formed an establishment on Pulo Condore in 1702; but a few years after the Europeans were murdered by the Macassar soldiers they employed.

Donnai. The tract comprised between the branches of the river of Cambodia appears among the natives to have the name of *Donnai;* it is succeeded on Tsiompa. the N.E. by the coast of Tsiompa, the *Bim-Tuam* of the natives, which is elevated, rocky, and barren, abounding in tigers and elephants, and thinly inhabited by a race, named *Loyes*, who are less civilized than the people on either side of them. This coast extends to Padaran.

Cape St. James, the east point of the river of Saigong, is a high broken promontory, with rocks off it. Point Kega, farther N.E., is a great mass of rock resembling a vast ruined city, and joined to the main by a low narrow isthmus; behind it rises the lofty and solitary mountain of Ticou. Between this point and Cape Padaran the coast is mountainous, with only some fishing villages.

Cape Padaran (*Mui-Dun* of the natives) is elevated

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elevated and convex to seaward; it is separated from the high mountains of Ceicer to the west by a remarkable chasm, called by English seamen the *Gap* of Padaran, and by the natives *Cana*. Pulo Ceicer de Terre, *Hon-Cau* of the natives, south of the Cape, is a low rocky island, with only a few small plants. Pulo Ceicer de Mer, fourteen leagues south of Ceicerde Terre, is four miles long, forming two hills; it is inhabited by Cochin Chinese fishermen, and abounds in the edible bird's nest. It has good anchorage on the west. Pulo Sapata, or Shoe Island, is the easternmost of three islands called the Catwicks; it seems to be a high inaccessible barren rock, the resort of sea birds.

Cochin-China.

The limits of the kingdom of Cochin-China proper are not defined in any geography; but it would appear, that the nature of the country and the language of its inhabitants afford an obvious boundary in about the latitude 17°: here the mountainous coast is succeeded by a low one, and the Cochin-Chinese dialect is replaced by the Tonquinese. The name of Cochin-China is derived from the Japanese, signifying *Country west of China*. Together with Tonquin, it had formerly the native name of *Anam*; but since their separation, 600 years ago, we are ignorant of its inhabitants having given it any other denomination.

There seems to be no coast on which the encroachment of the sea has been more visible, or more rapid, than that of Cochin-China, M. Poivre having observed it to be sixty yards in the space

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Cochin-China. of five years,* (1744—1749). Towards the south the shores are perpendicular, and of primitive rock or granite; in those places there are no soundings close to the shore, while opposite the spaces of sandy beach the bottom descends gradually, and consists of sand, mud, and shells. In some spots the beach is composed of ridges of rounded pebbles, and opposite these spots the bottom is rocky.

The rainy season, on the coast of Cochin-China, is from September to November, when the rivers overflow and fertilize the lands.

The Cochin-Chinese resemble the Chinese in their features, and their language is a dialect of the Chinese, though considerably altered; their written characters are, however, the same. The characters of the two nations differ in many marked points: the Cochin-Chinese are sprightly, and immoderate talkers; so far from being jealous of their women, they allow them unrestrained liberty and the free use of their feet; and, indeed, they hold them in so little estimation, that they are not only condemned to every species of drudgery, but are prostituted by their husbands and fathers, without shame or remorse, to whoever will pay for their enjoyment. The men take as many wives

* This effect seems to be produced by the strong current, which, in the N.E. monsoon, sets from the Grand Ocean through the channel between Formosa and Luconia, and strikes with great violence against the coast of Cochin-China, along which it takes a direction to the south, at the rate of two to three miles an hour.

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wives or concubines as they please, but the first, in point of date, takes the lead in the house. Divorce is attended with no other ceremony than the breaking a copper coin, or the *chop-sticks*, with which they convey their food to their mouths. Cochin-China.

The Cochin-Chinese possess almost all the domestic animals except sheep; and, for labour, they have the elephant, camel, horse, and buffalo.

The mountains abound in the rhinoceros, wild hogs, deer, and tigers. The tropical fruits are also abundant, but the chief food is rice. Several species of sea-weed are also eaten; and on the coasts all kinds of gelatinous mollusca form a staple article of food. The flesh of the elephant is also highly esteemed.

Though the Cochin-Chinese are hardy and experienced fishermen, their knowledge of navigation is very imperfect, and their voyages are circumscribed to the coast of which they never lose sight; for, though acquainted with the use of the compass, they have not adopted it. Their trading vessels are shaped like the Chinese junks, and the largest have their planks sewed together with split rattan; they have two rudders, one short and suspended almost perpendicularly, the other long and hung obliquely. The short one is used alone in light winds, the long one only when it blows fresh, and both in scudding before a gale.

The Cochin-Chinese vessels of war are of two kinds: the larger ones are of a middle construction, between the junk and the European ship,

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Cochin-China. the masts and sails are however still Chinese fashion; the large vessels having five or six of the former without topmasts, and the sails of matting composed of leaves, but which can be set so as to go very close to the wind; as fresh water immediately rots these sails, when it rains the crew are obliged to be constantly throwing salt water on them. The second species of vessels of war are gallies fifty to eighty feet long, with two banks of oars, and carrying fifteen to twenty pieces of cannon, six to twelve pounders.

In the boats the rowers face forward, and push the oar from them; like most eastern people they keep time to vocal cadence.

The tides on the coast of Cochin China, and in the gulf of Tonquin, are very irregular, high water in some ports remaining stationary for twelve hours; the highest tides are in winter and the lowest in summer.

North of Cape Padaran is the bay of Pharang, with a large town and harbour, to which succeeds Camaraigne bay, whose south point is named *Mui-Davaitch* by the natives (the False Cape Avarella of Europeans), and is a lofty promontory with a rock like a centry-box on the summit of a hill. This bay has two good ports for the largest ships, the outer one being sheltered by several islands, and the inner one is an extensive lagoon with a narrow entrance; here fresh water may be procured from a river. The only inhabitants of the bay are a few fishermen.

Nihatrang, or Niatlang bay, is spacious and well

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well sheltered by Tre and Fisher's islands. It receives a river crossed by a bar with seven feet water; above which is the chief town of the province (Buikang), whose inhabitants manufacture silk, and have some coasting trade. The town is defended by a fort built in the European manner, under the direction of a French engineer. Cochin-China.

Port Hone-Cohe is a large lagoon surrounded by high mountains. North of it, and on the south side of Cape Avarella, is Ongro harbour, which is three miles deep and one wide. Cape Avarella is a conspicuous promontory in latitude 12° 50', running out from a high mountain, on whose summit is a pyramidical rock, whence the name of Pagoda Cape is sometimes given to this point; a warm spring issues from the mountain, and it is said to contain silver. Five leagues north of the cape is a great mass of rocks, one of which is perforated, and a large flat stone crosses the cavity, as if placed intentionally to cover it.

Phyen harbour, farther north, is one of the best ports in the world; it is formed by three great basins. The shores have a cheerful appearance, being well cultivated and inhabited.

The ports of Xuan-Dai and Vung-Tcheau are also excellent harbours; on one gulf port Coumong, a little more north, is only fit for small vessels; before it is Pulo Cambir de Terre, inhabited by a few fishermen.

Quin-Hone, or Chin-chin, is a large land-locked bay, but generally shallow. The considerable

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Cochin-China. city of Quin-hone, formerly a place of great trade, is on a river five miles from its mouth in the bay. It has 10,000 inhabitants and was anciently the capital of the kingdom.

Pulo Canton, or Collaeray of the natives, in about 15½° is of some size, well cultivated and inhabited. Cham-Collao* is another island farther north, three leagues off shore, five miles long and two broad, rising in a hill at each end; it has not above 200 acres of land capable of cultivation, the rest being covered with rocks. The east coast is composed of inaccessible rocky precipices, but on the S.W. where is the only village, is a good bay for the largest ships, and though the S.W. monsoon blows right into it, the vicinity of the continent shelters it from any dangerous sea. On the same side are also some sandy coves, separated by rocky points, which make the communication very difficult, the village has not above thirty habitations.

Opposite Collao is the mouth of the river of Fai-foe, on which is the city of the same name, the present capital of the Cochin-Chinese empire; the river is navigable for vessels of 100 tons, and communicates with the bay of Turon.

Turon, or Hansan bay, is distinguished by a group of massive rocks to the south, resembling an enormous castle, north of which is a bold promontory forming in two peaks of unequal height, and joined to these rocks by a low isthmus. The

* This island was ceded to the French. See page 135 of this vol.

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This promontory, named by Lord Macartney the New Gibraltar, forms the south side of the bay of Turon, which is surrounded by hills separated by vallies, producing abundance of rice. The bay is sheltered in every point, and has several islands in it, but no danger that is not above water. The bottom is also a clean sand. The river of Hansan empties itself on the south shore of the bay between two dry sand banks, and through a channel about 500 yards wide, in which the depth is two fathoms. The town of Hansan, or Turon, is on the west bank, one mile from its mouth, and is a considerable assemblage of dwellings, the walls of bamboo and the covering of rice straw; a number of trees are planted among the houses. Here ducks, fowls, fruit, and vegetables, may be had in plenty, and the bay abounds in fish. The rains set in in the beginning of September, and last till the end of November. Though within the limits of the monsoons, this part of the coast is little affected by them, and land and sea breezes prevail throughout the year. In the bay of Turon the sea breeze sets in at three or four o'clock in the morning, and lasts till the same hours in the afternoon, when a land wind almost immediately succeeds, but which coming from elevated hills, is cool and refreshing.

Cochin-China.

Hue, or Whey, formerly the residence of the King of Cochin-China, when this state was independent, is five leagues up a river, is very populous but straggling and intersected by canals, on which are many passage boats. The streets are

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Cochin-China. long and wide; the palace is fortified with about sixty small guns pointed through holes in the wall, and the whole is surrounded by treble enclosures of bamboo, with a ditch, &c. A considerable coasting trade is carried on from hence with Cancao, Saigong, and China, junks of 100 tons, ascending the river over a bar with twelve feet.

Tonquin. The kingdom of TONQUIN, called by the natives *Anam*, commences at the river Sungon in about 17° north. Together with the coast of China and the island of Hainan, it forms the great Gulf of Tonquin, whose entrance is thirty-five leagues wide; it has a great number of small islands and shoals, and in the middle the depths are forty to forty-five fathoms. It receives upwards of fifty rivers, all of those on the west appearing to be mouths of the great river Sang-Koï or of Tonquin, whose source is in the interior of China, and which overflows in the rainy season from May to September. Most of these branches are crossed by bars and their navigation obstructed by banks. The first of consequence is named Rokbo in about 20°, it is accessible by junks of 100 tons, and communicates with the principal branch of the river whose mouth is twenty leagues farther north; junks of 500 tons ascend it to Dong-Kin,* forty leagues from the sea, which is the ancient capital of

* From this name, which signifies, the *eastern court*, or palace, Europeans have made *Tonquin*; at present this city is called Bac-kin, or the *northern court*; its popular name is *Kescho*. In Milburn's Oriental Commerce it is called *Cachao*; by alteration probably from Kescho.

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of the kingdom, containing 40,000 inhabitants. Temperature. The houses of the Mandarins are of brick, those of the common people of timber and mud thatched with palm-leaves; the principal streets are wide and paved with small stones.

Ascending the river from the sea, the first place met is Domea, six or seven miles above the bar, a town of 100 houses, before which the Dutch trading vessels anchor. Forty miles farther up is the city of Hun-nam, or Hean of the Dutch, who had formerly a factory here; it contains 5,000 inhabitants, and is the residence of the Chinese merchants, removed from the capital Bac-kin by order of the Cochin-Chinese emperor. The junction of the branch Rokbo with the main branch of the river takes place near Hun-nam, and vessels ascend to the latter by the Rockbo branch.

The coasts of Tonquin are generally formed of alluvion and depositions of the sea, which are preserved from the encroachment of the latter by strong dikes. Outside of these dikes the mud and sand form a mixture, which is neither land nor water, and over which the Tonquinese slide on broad planks to fish.

The principal vegetable production is rice, but most of the fruits of the tropics are also cultivated; and except sheep, of which there are none, domestic animals are abundant. The bees are said to give a limpid and sweet smelling honey; the forests are full of tigers and monkeys, which latter, according to the missionaries, sing as melodiously as the nightingale!!

The

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Tonquin. The tides in the Gulf of Tonquin are greatly affected by the winds, in the S.W. monsoon only rising fifteen or sixteen feet, while in the N.E. they rise twenty-six or twenty-seven. This difference is probably caused by the currents, which in the N.E. monsoon setting strong to the west, force a great mass of water into the gulf, while the flood tide coming from the south produces an extraordinary elevation.

The north shore of the Gulf of Tonquin is almost entirely unknown: it is said by the Dutch to be lined with islands, and is at present infested by pirates.(H)

HAINAN.

The Island of HAINAN, which forms the Gulf of Tonquin on the east, extends from N.E. to S.W. 200 miles, and is 130 miles broad. On the south it is generally composed of elevated mountains, affording gold and lapis-lazuli, and covered with various kinds of valuable trees, amongst which is particularly noticed that affording the rose or violet wood, thus named from its odour. The northern part of the island is low and level.

The Portuguese missionaries, from whom alone we have any account of this island, and whose relations are by no means infallible, describe it as possessing various extraordinary animals and birds, such as black apes with the shape and features of man, *et qui aiment les femmes; black birds* of a *deep blue*,

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blue, with yellow ears half an inch high;* crows with a white circle round the neck; starlings with a crescent on the beak, &c. &c. It is more certain that the island affords abundance of rice, areka, and sugar-cane. It is subject to the Chinese, who fill all the posts of trust and profit, and keep the aborigines in a state of abject subjection; these latter are described as short of stature, generally deformed, of a copper colour, and of inoffensive dispositions. The south and east coasts, which are alone known to Europeans, and that but very imperfectly, have several good ports and large towns, of which the principal are Tan-Tcheau on the S.W.; Yan-Tcheau, a fortified town, on the south, and residence of the Chinese viceroy; Leongsoy, a considerable town in a beautiful country on the S.E.; Kiun-Tcheau, on the north, has a great trade with China. Tinhosa Island, off the east coast, forms a good port in the N.E. monsoon.

* Probably the minor, a talking bird, common in India.

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CHINA.

The CHINESE EMPIRE commences on the eastern part of the Gulf of Tonquin with the province of Quantong. Between this gulf and Canton there are many ports, but from the exclusion of Europeans from all but Canton, they are little known. The westernmost of which we have any knowledge is Now-Chow, a small but good port, with a town and fort, and one of the rendezvous of the Ladrones. Ouchen is also said to be a good port; as is Tien-Pak, or Tien-Pe-Kien, where a great quantity of salt is made and sent to Canton. The city of Tien-Pe-Kien is of considerable size and walled round. Here ships obliged to put in in distress can procure jury masts and provisions, the people being civil and attentive to Europeans. From this part the coast is lined by a great number of broken and rocky islands, forming some good ports. The most worthy of notice is Chan-Cheun-Cham, which name has been corrupted by Europeans to Sanciam, and finally to St. John. It has five villages; and it is said that the tomb of St. Francis Xavier, who died here, is still to be seen. This island is five leagues long, and has some goods ports.

The Gulf of Ta is a deep indentation full of islands;

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islands; the most conspicuous of which are the Ladrones, about ten in number, which, together with the Lema Islands, form a semicircular chain before the gulf. The Great Ladrone, or Tyman-Shan,* is distinguished, as its name denotes, by an elevated domed summit that is seen ten leagues. The Ass's Ears, or Keam-Cheum-Mee,† has its name from two remarkable peaks rising from the same base almost perpendicularly from the sea, and surrounded by rocky islets. Farther east is the Lema group, the largest of which, named Tam-Koon-Tow, is five miles in length. More within the gulf, and nearest the east shore, is the considerable island Lantao, or Ty-Oa, with two elevated peaks; and farther north is Lintin, rising in a high hill. Most of these islands are rocky and barren, but afford water, and are inhabited by Chinese fishermen.

The city of Macao, called Ou-Moon by the Chinese, is situated at the extremity of a peninsula of the island Ho-Chow,‡ near the west shore of the Gulf of Ta. The isthmus that unites the peninsula to the rest of the island is 100 yards broad, and is crossed by a wall with a gate, guarded by Chinese soldiers, to prevent Europeans from entering the Chinese part of the island. The peninsula is about eight miles in circuit following the shores, and is composed of hills, descending

* Shan, a high island or mountain.

† Mec has the significatcn of the paps of English seamen.

‡ Chow signifies a small island.

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ascending gradually towards the west, with rocky precipices on the east, whose bases are washed by the waves. The city is built on irregular ground, the streets narrow, and the houses of stone, mean and gloomy. The public buildings are chiefly religious, there being five churches, four convents of men and two of women, a college for the education of priests, and three religious hospitals; the senate house, the government house, and the European factories are the public civil buildings, and are all very plain. The fortifications are numerous, but principally detached. The fortified convent of N. S. de la Guie, on the summit of a hill, commands a part of the city; and on another hill is also a fortified convent, formerly belonging to the Jesuits. These, and several batteries commanding the entrance of the harbour, mount heavy guns, and are garrisoned by three to 400 troops, principally Indian Portuguese sent from Goa.

The population of Macao is estimated at 1,400 males, mostly born in the city and of mixed breed, the number of Europeans being very trifling. The females are reckoned at 2,400, a great portion of whom are Tartars by birth, purchased in infancy, and adopted by the Portuguese as future wives for their sons. The village of Moa, which adjoins the city, is inhabited entirely by Chinese, to the supposed number of 25,000, and those who live in the boats in the harbour may be 5,000, making the whole population of the peninsula 33,800.

Macao

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Macao presents the singular phenomenon of a city under two distinct and very opposite governments; for though the full sovereignty of the peninsula nominally belongs to the Portuguese in virtue of the original grant, the Chinese have gradually encroached on their privileges, until at last they have usurped the entire authority *de facto*. Originally the Portuguese were authorized to oblige the Chinese to quit the peninsula at sunset; but this precaution being neglected, the Chinese have not only fixed themselves in the village of Moa, but even claim a great authority within the city, so that the Portuguese cannot even repair their houses without permission from the Mandarin; neither can they cultivate the scanty portion of soil of which they are the nominal proprietors, the Chinese having covered every spot unbuilt on with tombs; and by their religion and custom the spot of ground in which a body is interred immediately becomes the sacred property of the family of the deceased, and is for ever held inviolate. The Portuguese government of Macao consists of a governor, a king's lieutenant, or disem-barcador; the first sent from Goa for three years, and the latter from Lisbon for five. The bishop, who is suffragan of Goa, is the third person in the government. The municipal government is in a senate, which assumes the pompous title of the *august senate of the noble city of Macao*.

The mandarin of Hong-Chang-foo, a town of 100,000 inhabitants, seven leagues west of Macao, has

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has the immediate superintendance of the Chinese government of Macao.

The harbour of Macao is formed by the west side of the peninsula and the east side of an island; it can receive vessels eighteen or nineteen feet draft. Four miles south of the city is another port, named the Typa, formed by four rocky islands, and fit for vessels of twenty feet.

No stranger can leave Macao without visiting the grotto in which *Camoens* is supposed to have composed his *Lusiad;* and, indeed, the situation is capable of inspiring a poetical feeling, commanding an extensive and magnificent view of the sea and neighbouring islands.

As no European woman is permitted to set a foot on the Chinese territory, all those who may be on board ships going into the river of Canton are always landed at Macao, to wait the return of the ship.

The gulf of Ta, or of Canton, receives the great river Hoan-Kiang, or Ta, which rises in the province of Yun-nan, and has a course of 800 miles. The city of Canton, *Quantcheau-Foo* of the Chinese, is on the Pe-Kiang, which also falls into this gulf, fifty miles from its mouth, called the *Bocca Tigris*, from the shape of an island near it;* and which is protected by a fort on each side, that

* This island is remarkable by its alternate streaks of smooth black rock and verdure, which, together with its shape, having some resemblance to a tiger couchant, have acquired it the name of Ty-Foo, or Great Tiger, in Chinese, which name was transferred by the Portuguese to the mouth of the river.

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that a sloop of war might destroy by half a dozen broadsides. In ascending the river ten miles is the second bar, below which the English Company's ships complete their cargoes; the bar being considered dangerous. About twelve miles higher up is Whampoa, where all European vessels anchor, and where two Chinese custom-house boats are appointed to every ship to prevent smuggling. This road is formed by three islands, named Danes, French, and Bankshall. On Danes island the English have permission to send their people on shore for recreation; and on Bankshall island they send their sails, &c. to repair.

Towards the mouth of the river of Canton the banks are low and swampy, chiefly formed into rice grounds. Above the second bar the scene grows more interesting; high mountains rising at a distance from the river, the banks of which are highly cultivated, and intersected by creeks covered with innumerable vessels of the Chinese, from the *junk* of 1,000 tons to the *sanpan* of the fishermen, scarcely his own length. Opposite the second bar, on the west bank, is a stupendous pagoda, beautifully situated; and from this point both banks are thickly dotted with villages, pagodas, and other edifices.

Canton is situated on the north or left bank of the river, and seems to consist of three distinct towns, each surrounded by its wall and other defences. The city proper is defended towards the river by two high walls mounting cannon, and by two castles, built on islands in the river.

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On the land side it has a strong wall and three forts; its circuit is five miles. No European is permitted to enter it. The town, or suburb, which is accessible to Europeans, is composed of an endless labyrinth of narrow lanes; the centers paved with little pebbles, and the sides flagged. The houses are usually mean buildings, and chiefly used as warehouses and shops, the dwelling houses being in the city; they are built of brick and roofed with tiles. The windows, in summer, are closed by lattices of bamboo, and, in winter, have frames with oyster shells, scraped so thin as to admit the light. At the end of each street is a barrier, closed at night, so that no person can walk the streets after a certain hour. Every trade has its proper street, and that named the China or Porcelain Street, from being chiefly occupied by persons selling this article, is the largest in the suburbs, and, indeed, the only one in which it is possible for two people to walk abreast without being jostled.

The European factories are situated on the bank of the river, 100 yards from the water; they are built of brick, in a handsome stile: the English far surpassing the others in magnificence, and containing very handsome suits of apartments, or rather separate houses for the chief supra-cargoes. A public and most sumptuous table is kept by the Company for all the members of the factory. Before each factory is hoisted the flag of the nation it belongs to, and which, before the late wars, were the English, Dutch, French, Danish, Spanish,

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Spanish, Portuguese, Swedish, and Imperial. The population of Canton has been variously estimated, between one million and a half and 75,000; but calculating from the circuit of the city, it may probably contain about 150,000 souls; and it may be estimated, that 100,000 persons live in the boats on the river, making the whole population 250,000.

Ascending the coast of China to the N.E. from Canton, several good ports are met, formerly frequented by Europeans, and principally by the Dutch, who gave them names after their own fashion; the principal are Ping-hai, or Harlem, which receives a river by which the Chinese junks ascend to the large city of Fok-ai-foo. Hai-Hong, or Cranmer's Bay, is large and filled with islands, most of them steep and rocky, but some covered with verdure. Before this bay is Pedro Branco (the White Rock), about four leagues off the shore, and named from its summit being whitened by the excrement of birds.

Amoy harbour is formed by two islands, and is capable of holding 1,000 ships; the English had formerly a factory here, but since the removal of the trade to Canton no European ships visit this port.

Chin-Chew is a good harbour and place of great trade, the best sugar-candy being made here; the islands near it are infested by the Ladrone pirates.

The Chusan islands are a great archipelago, extending from 29° 22′ to 30° 30′. They are generally mountainous, rising gradually from the sea to rounded summits, are separated by narrow but

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deep channels, and have the appearance of having formed one land united to the continent; their base is red and grey granite, and in general they are very barren; that named Pooto is, however, described as a perfect paradise, and is inhabited solely by Chinese monks, to the number of 5,000. Ploughman's Island, another of them, is also inhabited and covered with verdure, but has no other trees than dwarf oaks and pines. Lowang, one of the largest, according to the Chinese accounts, has 10,000 inhabitants. Amongst these islands is Chusan harbour, about three leagues from the main land, perfectly safe and capacious. The town of Chusan, or Ting-hai, on an island ten leagues long, is surrounded by a stone wall three miles in circuit, with twenty-two square bastions and four great gates, but with only a few old iron guns; the inhabitants are about 4,000, chiefly fishermen.

Ning-po, or Limpo, is a town of the first class on a river; it has a great trade, the Chinese of Siam and Batavia coming here for silk, and it has also a constant commerce with Japan, Nangasaki being only two days' sail distant. Han-tcheau is the capital of the province of Tche-kiang and on the river Tchiang; it is the chief entrepot of the commerce of the northern and southern provinces. The river Tchiang serpentizes beautifully through a richly cultivated country.

The HOANG-HAI,* or Yellow Sea, commences north

* *Hoang*, yellow—*Kiang*, a river of middling size; this river is also called the Kiang-ku. *Ho*, a great river.

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north of the Chusan Archipelago; it has its name from the muddiness of its waters, has no where a greater depth than forty fathoms, and is continually covered with fogs, caused by the strong evaporation owing to its shallowness.

The Yang-tse-kiang, Blue River, or River of Nankin, the second of China in consideration, rises on the north of Thibet in the desert of Cobi. The Hoang-ho, or Yellow River, has likewise its source in the country of the Kalmucks. These two rivers descend with rapidity through the central *plateau* of Asia, and each meeting with a ridge of mountains, is obliged to make an immense circuit, the Hoang-ho towards the north and the Yang-tse towards the south, until they are separated by a space of 1,400 miles, when they again suddenly approach each other, and wind together through the immense plains of China to the sea, into which they disembogue by mouths only forty leagues distant from each other, after nearly equal courses of 2,000 miles.

Before the mouth of the Yang-tse is the island Tsung-ming, apparently formed of its alluvion being very low; it has a fortified town and several villages, and is the place of banishment for Chinese criminals.

Nankin, on the Yang-tse, 100 miles from the sea, was formerly the capital of China: the walls which surround it are said to *have been* thirty-six miles in circumference, but at present the houses are not more numerous than at Paris. It has a famous tower, constructed entirely of porcelain,

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with nine stages, ascended by 884 steps. It has a great trade, particularly for porcelain and silk. The largest junks ascend to the city.

The promontory of Shantung encloses the Gulf of Pecheli, the N.W. extremity of the Yellow Sea. Kisanseu Bay is on the north side of the promontory, and is ten leagues in extent, sheltered by a group of islands on the north: it has two good coves, that on the S.E. at the mouth of the river Ya-ma-tao, which is half a mile wide, and crossed by a bar with fifteen feet at high water. The country inland is moderately elevated, and apparently barren.

Tenchoo is a large walled town on a bay, twelve leagues west of Kisanseu: it has a basin, or haven, for the Chinese junks, formed by two jetties, with an entrance thirty feet wide. The Miatau islands are a group north of Tenchoo Bay, partly rocky and mountainous, and partly fertile. They form good harbours.

Peiko, or the White River, or river of Pekin, empties itself into the Gulf of Pecheli: it is crossed by a bar, on which there is but three or four feet at low water, and the rise of tide is but five or six feet. Within the bar the breadth of the river is half a mile, and the depth three fathoms at low water. Before the entrance of the river is a group of sandy islands, at the distance of thirteen leagues. The principal one is named Sha-loo-poo-tien.

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In the short sketch which our limits allow us to give of the Chinese character, we shall confine ourselves to those marked traits in which both their panegyrists and traducers agree, without pretending to enter deeply into the question of the perfection or imperfection of their particular institutions, on which neither travellers or philosophers yet coincide.

The peculiar cast of countenance, the square shape of the skull, the thin beard and yellow complexion, prove the Chinese to belong to the Mongol variety of the human species. The Chinese ideas of beauty are very different from ours, with the men extreme corpulence being considered a sign of dignity and wisdom, inasmuch as it supposes a life of inactivity and study. The men of fashion let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, and stain their hair and beards black. Female beauty consists in having the eyes puckered, the lips plump, and the feet diminutive; to acquire which last perfection the toes of the infants are pressed downwards and inwards, and the heel forwards, by means of bandages, until the foot is a shapeless mass, and the *ladies* rather *hobble* than walk. The women of the common class, who are obliged to work, are not, however, subject to this rule of fashion.

The government of China is the most absolute despotism, every mandarin, or officer of government, having the power of life and death over his inferiors, as the emperor has over him. In fact, the pretended wisdom of the Chinese laws con-

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sists in giving an unlimited authority to the magistrates, and in inspiring every class of society with the ideas of passive obedience and the reverence due to superiors; hence each step, in approaching a mandarin or man of rank, is accompanied by a reverence, and each word is an expression of inferiority.

The permanence of the Chinese character, which has been considered as a proof of its perfection, proves, on the contrary, the imperfection of their social relations, and seems to be chiefly dependent on the poverty of their language, and the incompetency of their written characters to express new ideas. Hence it is, that though the Chinese carry some of the mechanical arts to a high degree of perfection, it is a perfection proceeding from immemorial routine, and not from the efforts of genius: they are accurate copyists, but have no idea of improvement, and not an atom of invention.

The art of navigation is one in which the Chinese have been described as excelling; but though there is reason to suppose them to have been acquainted with the use of the compass from time immemorial,[1] they are still very far behind Europeans in this science. They have no instrument for taking celestial observations, and in their voyages to Japan, in which they are obliged to go out of sight of land, they are guided more by the stars than by the compass, while in those to Batavia they coast it the whole way.

Neither is their improvement in naval architecture

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ture much greater. Their junks are enormous arks, some carrying 1,000 tons; their extremities are prodigiously elevated, which necessarily unfits them for sailing on a wind, while having but little hold of the water they are easily overset. The hold is divided into as many compartments as there are merchants on board, each having a distinct compartment to stow his goods, for every merchant accompanies his freight. The water is also kept in separate tanks instead of casks. Towards the stern, on each quarter, are several tiers of little cabins of bamboo for the officers and passengers; and a midships between these is a steerage, where is a little chapel or josshouse, in which their idol is kept, which is of gold, and before it incense and lights are kept constantly burning. On their arrival in port, before they begin to discharge, this joss is sent on shore. The rudder is attached to the sternpost by rattan ropes, of which substance all their cordage is made; their anchors are of wood, with heavy stones tied to them. The large junks carry three masts, each of a single piece; their sails are of matting; and all round the quarters are stuck innumerable little flags and streamers of different colours. Many Chinese enter on board the English East Indiamen, and make good sailors.

In their sanpans, or passage boats, on the canals, the Chinese shew great taste. These are a kind of gondolas, with a large cabin built in the centre, elegantly painted and varnished, and furnished with sofas, tables, chairs, glasses, &c.

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The numerous canals, which unite the rivers of China and form an inland navigation through the whole country, shew rather the industry than the genius of the nation; for though their number and length surprise the traveller, their construction, particularly the sluices, or rather perforated dikes, through which the boats ascend and descend, are extremely imperfect, and the boats being principally drawn by men, their progress is very slow. The canals are usually lined with stone and crossed by fantastic bridges, so often attempted to be imitated in miniature on the canals in our parks. The principal canal is that of Pekin, named the Imperial, which communicates between the capital and Canton, a distance of 2,000 miles, in which the navigation is only interrupted during one day's journey, by a ridge of hills, between the provinces of Quamtong and Kiam-si.

Theatrical performances are the principal public amusements of the Chinese, but in their plays no one unity is observed. The hero, who appears an infant on the stage in the first act, after having travelled from one end of the world to the other, often dies of old age in the last: spirits, genii, and talking birds and beasts are also brought on the stage. The Chinese are extravagantly fond of fireworks, but generally set them off at noon-day.

The higher class of Chinese are marked by their indolence, and the lower by their dirtiness; the former are fed by their slaves, while the latter devour even the flesh of animals that have died of disease.

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disease. The exposition of children is certainly prevalent, but it would seem not to the degree generally supposed; many of the children found dead in the streets being placed there to avoid the expense of burial.

Polygamy is authorized among the higher classes, and the emperor has a numerous seraglio. Marriages are decided by the parents, and the husband never sees his wife's face till the ceremony is past. The women are generally considered in a little better light than slaves, and it is not uncommon for a Chinese peasant to harness his ass and his wife to the same plough.

Veneration for the dead is one of the principles of the Chinese religion, their ancestors being considered as their *dies penatii*, and an annual feast is celebrated at their tombs. The religion of the learned Chinese is a compound of abstract reveries, the doctrines of Confucius, followed by one sect, having some resemblance to the Stoicism of the Greeks and Romans; while the tenets of another sect have analogy with Epicureanism, making happiness to consist in tranquil and contemplative indolence. The great mass of the people, however, requiring a more substantial religion, have adopted that of Brahma, modified under the name of Fo: the priests of this doctrine, named Bonzes, are said to amount to a million, and live entirely on alms.

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THE COREA.

The peninsula of Corea,* which bounds the Yellow Sea on the east, is little known; but it appears that a chain of elevated mountains runs through it from north to south, whose summits approach close to the Sea of Japan, while they decline gradually towards the Yellow Sea; they are said to contain gold, silver, lead, iron, topazes, fossil salt, &c. Among the animals are wild boars, beavers, zebellines, deer, &c. a diminutive breed of horses is used in labour. Though the climate is cold, and fogs almost perpetual, the soil is fruitful, producing barley, rice, and other grains. The coasts are lined by rocks and shoals, but of the sea-ports we have no knowledge; the towns are described as similar to those of China, to which empire the peninsula is tributary, and its inhabitants resemble the Chinese in their persons, religion, and manners. They trade in their own junks to China and Japan, the exports being lead, cotton, raw silk, ginseng, which grows in abundance on the mountains, cotton paper, linens, paper fans, &c.

Quelpaert Island, twelve leagues distant from the south coast of Corea, is fifteen leagues in circuit, and rises to a peak that may be seen twenty leagues; this mountain is cultivated nearly to its summit. In the vallies are scattered vast masses of rock, which seem to have been hurled from the mountains

* The native names are *Kao-li* and *Tchao-sien*.

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mountains by a convulsion of nature. The island is inhabited by Coreans, and dependent on the peninsula: on the north is a good harbour.

Dagelet Island, thus named by La Perouse, lays off the east coast of Corea in the Sea of Japan. It is only three leagues in circuit without anchorage round it, there being twenty fathoms close to the surf; its shores present a perpendicular wall of rock, with some little sandy coves where landing is practicable; it is one great hill covered by lofty trees, without any appearance of cultivation, but is frequented by the Coreans for the purpose of boat building.

North of the Corea is the region of Chinese Tartary, named MANTCHOURIE, or the country of the *Mantchour*, extending on the Yellow Sea along the Gulf of Leotong, and on the Sea of Japan to the Amur river. That portion of it in the Yellow Sea is described by the Chinese as fruitful, populous, and well cultivated; while the eastern coast, visited by La Perouse, seems to have no other inhabitants than a few temporary fishermen. This coast is described by the unfortunate navigator, as mountainous and covered with forests of oaks, pines, willows, birches, and aspins; while the low grounds were at that season (June) adorned with apple and medlar trees in bloom, and hazles with the fruit beginning to set; the rose and the lilly were also in flower, and the meadows were covered with grass four feet high. That such a country should remain unpeopled, in the vicinity

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vicinity of China overflowing with a population of cultivators, is not easily to be accounted for.

The atmosphere of these regions, like those of Labrador, is an almost constant fog, and the sea covered with fuci has the appearance of overflowed meadows.

Ternay Bay, visited and thus named by La Perouse, is an indifferent port, affording wood, water, and fish. The animals seen here were bears and antelopes, the birds were very few and chiefly aquatic. Shell-fish seemed also to be scarce, the dead shells of muscles, limpits, perriwinkles, and *purpuræ*, only being met on the shore, and the *dredge* only brought up some oysters, whelks, star-fish and *echini*, together with small coral.

Suffrein Bay, which receives a river thirty yards wide, and Castries Bay, both visited and named by La Perouse, are in succession to the north. The latter is the only port on this coast (as far as this navigator's researches went) which affords shelter to a ship in bad weather; its bottom is mud, but the shore is lined by flat rocks covered with sea-weed (*fucus vesiculosus*) which at low water renders landing inconvenient. Here La Perouse found a Tartar *village* of *four* huts constructed of the trunks of firs neatly dovetailed at the angles, the roof of bark supported by a frame, and a raised bench surrounding it inside; the fireplace was in the middle and the smoke passed out through a hole in the roof. This appeared to be only a summer fishing residence, a river falling into the bay abounding in salmon, which the Tartars took both

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both by nets and spears, and smoked the bodies, while the head, gills, and mucilaginous parts they devoured or sucked raw. These people received the French navigators with hospitality.

The Amur or Sagalin-Ula rises in Mongul Tartary, on the frontiers of the Russian dominions, and empties itself into the Gulf of Ochotsk, within the island of Sagalin. Its stream is tranquil, its navigation unimpeded by rocks or shoals, and its banks bordered by magnificent forests. The Russians consider this river throughout its course as the *natural* boundary of their empire; but at the close of the seventeenth century, when commissioners were appointed to define the limits, the Russians allowed themselves to be over-reached by the Chinese, to whom was confirmed a large tract on the left bank of the river to the sea.

The island of SAGALIN or SEGALIEN is named by the Mantchou Tartars, who inhabit its northern parts, *Tchoka* and *Saldan*; by the inhabitants of Jesso it is called *Karato*, and by the Japanese *Oku Jesso* and *Kitta-Jesso*, Upper and Northern Jesso.

To those who cannot appreciate the difficulties attending the navigation of an unknown sea, enveloped in constant fog, it must seem singular, that though three able and persevering navigators made it an object of their particular research, to ascertain the insularity of the land of Sagalin, it still remains doubtful whether it is an island separated by a narrow strait from the main, or a peninsula joined to it by a low isthmus.

La Perouse being obliged by the winds and other

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other circumstances to quit the gulf to which he gave the name of Channel of Tartary, without exploring it to its head, endeavoured to ascertain the fact by a particular interrogation of the natives both of the continent and of Sagalin. The latter assured him that their country was surrounded by water and traced a strait separating it from the continent; the former, however, described to him the manner in which the boats from the mouth of the Amur, proceeding to the bay of Castries, were drawn across a narrow neck of land covered with sea-weed. La Perouse himself observed, in corroboration of this latter information, that the depth diminished gradually towards the head of the gulf, and that there was no current; hence he was inclined to believe, that if a channel existed, it was so encumbered by sand and weeds as to afford a passage to boats only. Broughton, who sailed eight leagues higher up the gulf than La Perouse, found the depth diminish until he could proceed no farther with the ships. From hence he dispatched his boats to examine the shore, which they found composed of low sandy land, and of which they made the circuit without finding any opening; hence he was persuaded that no strait existed. Krusenstern, who visited the gulf at the mouth of the Amur, to the north of the supposed isthmus or strait, agrees with Broughton as to the non-existeuce of a strait, and founds his opinion on an extended reasoning, not having been able to ascertain the absolute fact. The chief of his reasons is the freshness of the water

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in this northern gulf, caused by the stream of the Amur, which would not be the case if the salt waters of the southern gulf could mix with those of the north by a strait

Sagalin extends between the latitudes of 46° and 55° N. La Perouse, who traced the west side, describes it as very elevated towards the middle and flat towards the south, where it appears susceptible of cultivation, the vegetation appearing extremely vigorous in the large oaks, firs, birches, and willows, that compose the forests; and the low grounds are covered with rose trees, angelica, sarana, &c. The sea abounds in fish, and the rivers swarm with salmon and trout. The inhabitants of this coast towards the south are the same race as the Aïnos of Jesso, and subsist by hunting and fishing.

All the east coast examined by Krusenstern, presents wooded vallies, behind which the summits of the mountains are concealed in the clouds, but beyond the 51° the land descends and is composed of sandy downs. This coast appears to be nearly uninhabited. The north part, opposite the Amur, is occupied by the Mantchoux Tartars. At the S.E. end of the island are the bays of Anicoa and Patience; on the former of which the Japanese have a post to collect and dry fish for the consumption of Niphon.

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RUSSIAN TARTARY, OR SIBERIA.

Russian Tartary, or Siberia, commences on the west shore of the Gulf of Okotsk, or Sea of Tartary, north of the mouth of the Amur, in about the 53½ degree of latitude. Between the Amur and Uda are counted twenty rivers, but none are worthy even of being named. The Uda is of considerable size, but is choaked with sands: on it is the Russian establishment of Udskoi, seventy wersts from its mouth, chiefly composed of exiles. Between the Uda and Okota the coast is bold and clear, having fourteen fathoms depth at three leagues distance. In this extent the Russians name forty-three rivers: amongst them the Aldoma is of considerable size; the Ulkan is twenty yards wide at the mouth and the tide rises nine feet; the Urak is 150 yards broad, but rapid and full of shoals, and crossed by a bar with only five feet. Between this river and Okotsk are some salt works, the only ones in these countries, and they are insufficient for the Russian establishments.

The river Okota empties itself into a bay at the N.W. extremity of the gulf of Okotsk; its entrance is 500 yards wide, but is crossed by a bank of sand through which there is but one shifting channel

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channel sixty yards wide, and with but five feet depth at low water: besides the sea breaks violently on the bank in high winds. Within the bank the depth is seven fathoms, but it shoals so as to be navigable for boats only one mile. The bay is also shallow, there being only ten fathoms three leagues from the entrance of the river, and the bottom is loose sand that does not hold; so that, in every respect, it is a bad harbour, but there is no other between it and the Amur.

The town of Okotsk is built on a tongue of land, washed by the Okota on one side and by the sea on the other. In 1790 it consisted of 132 houses of wood, a church and magazine; nor has it much increased since, the population in 1805 being only 2,000 souls, composed of the officers of government, some Cossack soldiers, Russian sailors and exiles.

The sole defence is a pallisaded fort. This miserable place is, however, the capital of the province of Okotsk, and has in its dependence the peninsula of Kamtschatka, and the Kurile and Aleutian isles. Here is also an admiralty, and places for building vessels.

The climate of Okotsk is unhealthy, the atmosphere being enveloped in constant fog. The cold winds from the sea prevent the growth of any trees a mile and a half from the shore; the fertility, however, increases inland, and behind a ridge of hills, at the distance of five miles, trees, good pasture, and a more pleasant climate are found.

Okotsk depends for almost all the necessaries of

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life on the interior of Siberia, and the manufactures and productions of Europe are brought to it by land from Russia; an annual caravan of 5,000 to 8,000 horses arriving from Yakutsk with all these objects.

The chief food of the inhabitants is fish, fresh, smoked, and salted, and this diet, together with the cold humidity of the climate, makes scurvy the most predominant disease. Shoals of salmon make their appearance when the river resumes its bed, and in July, when they are in perfection, the inhabitants lay in their winter's provisions for themselves and dogs, of which each person has a team of twelve to twenty-four to draw his sledge. These animals, in summer are fed on the offal of the fish, as well as the cattle, which gives a very bad flavour both to the milk and flesh of the latter.

Shoals of herrings and sturgeons succeed the salmon in succession; at the close of April ducks, geese, and storks make their appearance, and the two latter go off again in June, when snipes succeed. Wild ducks cover the bay in summer, and form a great portion of the winter food of the people: the hunting them is one of the greatest amusements of the place. In summer they lose their quill feathers, and consequently cannot fly; at this time, therefore, forty or fifty canoes quit the shore with the ebb-tide, and getting outside of the ducks, when the flood makes, they drive them in before them till close to the shore, when they are hemmed in by the canoes, until the tide falling,

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falling, the canoes ground and form a barricade round them: an officer of police who presides at this business gives the word of command, and men, women, and children jump out of the canoes, armed with sticks, nets, and cords; the first to knock the ducks on the head, and the latter to enclose them or tie them together. This scene is of an amusing nature, for sometimes a misdirected blow falls on the head of a friend instead of a duck; at others they seize each others prey, and the various noises of the people, mixed with the cries of the ducks, and the screams of an immense flock of gulls that always hover over them, produce an uproar that must be heard to be conceived. One hunt often produces six or 7,000 ducks, and the poorer inhabitants smoke and salt them for winter.

From Okotsk to the Gulf of Tauskoï the coast lays E.N.E., and has fifteen fathoms at three leagues distance. Taus is a small Russian establishment at the mouth of a river, which can only receive boats; it is inhabited by a few Cossacks and exiles. The river Yamsk falls into a gulph, and has a small establishment of exiles on it.

The N.E. extremity of the sea of Okotsk, or of Tartary, forms a deep gulf, the head of which is separated into two branches by a peninsula. The westernmost branch is called the gulf of Ingiga, and on a river which falls into it is a Russian settlement of 100 soldiers, 400 Cossacks,

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and 200 families of exiles. The eastern branch is named Penzina, from a river at its head, whose entrance is choked by rocks, and frozen the greatest part of the year. On the Acklan, which falls into the Penzina, is the Russian establishment of exiles named Acklanskoi.

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KAMTSCHATKA.

The peninsula of Kamtschatka is usually understood to commence about the 58° of latitude, where the tract that separates the Gulf of Pengina and Behring's Basin is so narrow that both seas are seen from the summits of the central mountains.

The south point of the peninsula is named Cape Lopatka, from its resemblance to the *scapula* of a man. From this Cape the land rises gradually to the north, and for forty miles from the Cape is extremely barren, producing only dwarf cedars and willows. Beyond this tract are large vallies covered with birch, and with many lakes. In latitude 53° the ridge of mountains divides into two branches, which diverging, enclose a barren valley, sixty-five miles long and three to fifteen broad. The mountains again converge towards the north till they approach each other within two miles, and through this pass the Kamtschatka river flows. Beyond this pass the ridges again diverge, and form a fertile valley 180 miles long, and in some places forty miles broad, whose soil is a rich mould mixed with volcanic ashes and ferruginous sand: the climate of this valley also differs greatly from that of the coasts, being shel-

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tered from the Frozen Sea winds. In advancing to the north, the country again becomes barren, stony, and sandy, and the climate more severe.

The peninsula has several volcanoes, which cause earthquakes, and give rise to hot springs. The rivers are numerous and flow towards each sea, but none are of any consideration. The most common trees are poplar, larch, birch, willow, alder, cedar pine (*pinus zembla*), firs (*pinus abies*) oriental plane, juniper, &c. The peninsula has excellent pasture for large cattle, of which, however, there are very few. The nettle is used for the purposes of hemp; the root of the sarana, or water lilly, is eaten in lieu of bread, as are several species of *fucus* (*palmatus*, *esculentus*, *sacharinus*, &c.) The imperfect attempts at cultivation hitherto made, have been confined to the vicinity of the coasts, and have proved little satisfactory, barley and oats, which are the only corn that ripens, returning only two to three for one. Potatoes, turnips, carrots, and other esculent vegetables, are only produced in the gardens of a few of the most industrious Russian settlers.

The wild animals are bears, rein deer, the argalis, or wild sheep, horses, marmots, ermines, black, red, and stone foxes, sables, gluttons, sea otters, and seals innumerable. The *alca arctica* arrives in great flights in spring to breed; when also appear wild geese and ducks, and several species of gulls. The climate of the coasts is cold and humid, the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul remaining frozen from December to March.

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The Kamtschadales, or aborigines of the peninsula, are naturally mild, hospitable, and honest, but averse from regular labour, all attempts to induce them towards agriculture having failed: their stature is short, their heads large, their faces flat, thin lips and chin, and they have but little hair. The number of these people is every day diminishing so rapidly, that a few years will probably see the race extinct. When the Russians first visited the peninsula in 1696, the population was estimated at 70,000; in 1771 it was reduced to 11,000; and in 1793 to 1,053. The causes of this depopulation are, the small-pox, which in 1768 carried off upwards of 5,000; the venereal disease, which was known before the arrival of the Russians, and to whose ravages the libertinism of the Kamtschadales gives a greater extent; and finally, in 1800, an epidemical disease almost destroyed the remaining population.

The Kamtschadales have in general been converted to the Greek religion, and have adopted many of the customs of the Russians, particularly the habit of intoxication. They however retain their ancient music, lascivious dances, language, and some part of their dress. The summer they employ in fishing, and salting and smoking the produce for winter. In the autumn they gather the berries of the water lilly and kipery, which the Russians purchase to make brandy. In the spring they frequent the rocks and swamps to collect sea birds' eggs, which they preserve in fish oil.

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The habitations of the Kamtschadales towards the south are named *isbas* and *balagans*; the former being the winter dwellings, and the latter the summer: they are both elevated on posts twelve feet from the ground. Towards the north the winter cabins are sunk in the earth to preserve the heat; but which also preserves the stench of their putrid fish and other ordures, and renders them insufferable to any but a Kamtschadale. Ten to twenty of these cabins form the largest of their villages. The mode of travelling in Kamtschatka, in winter, is on sledges, drawn by dogs; four to eight of these animals being yoked to a sledge: the rate of their going is ten to fifteen wersts an hour, or 200 wersts in forty-eight hours. The value of a draught dog is from 30 to 100 rubles.

The Russian inhabitants of the Peninsula, in 1793, amounted to 1,687.

The only foreign merchant vessels that have as yet visited Kamtschatka are, one from Bengal in 1786, which disposed of a small part only of her cargo, at St. Peter and St. Paul; a second from the same place, in 1792, found no sale; and a French vessel, commanded by a Russian, in the latter year. Nevertheless, a vessel, direct from Europe, could afford to sell the same goods 300 per cent. cheaper than what they can be brought for by land, as is proved by the following prices of some articles at Kasan and Kamtschatka, in 1793.

Kasan.

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	Kasan. Rubles.	Kopecs.	*Kamtschatka.* Rubles.	Kopecs.
A yard of stout linen..	21	0..	139	
A pair of boots.....	3	0..	12 to 18	
1 lb. of soap.....	0	6..	0	60 to 100
A pair of thread stockings	1	25..	4 to 5	
1 lb. of candles.....	0	8..	0	80 to 100
1 lb. of tea.....	2	0..	12	0
1 lb. of sugar.....	0	50..	3	0
1 lb. of leaf tobacco....	0	5..	3	0
1 lb. of wheat flour....	0	50..	5	0
1 lb. of barley do.....	0	60..	8	0
1 lb. of rice.....	0	10..	1	0

Previous to 1788, Kamtschatka had but two places considered as towns; Bolcheretz, which was the seat of government, and St. Peter and St. Paul. In that year Nishnei Kamtschatka was erected into a city, and the government transferred to it. In the same year the peninsula afforded a revenue of 40,000 rubles, arising from the tribute paid by the Kamtschadales, from a duty on furs, and from the profits on the sale of brandy.

The governor of Kamtschatka is usually a general officer; his salary is only 600 rubles a year, and he is expected to keep a table for his officers. This, however, cannot be very expensive, if his general bill of fare is the same as given by a recent voyager,—fresh, salted and smoked geese and wild ducks, fresh and smoked rein-deer flesh, wild sheeps' tongues and salmon.

The west coast of the peninsula is generally low and sandy to the foot of the mountains, which in

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West Coast. in some places approach close to the shore, and are rugged, at others they recede eight to ten leagues inland. On each of the three principal rivers which empty themselves on this coast is a Russian establishment: that of Bolcheretz is the principal, having, in 1793, thirty-five houses and 235 inhabitants, with a fort of five bastions and twenty cannon. It is situated eight leagues up the Bolchoya-Reka, or Great River, in whose mouth the rise of tide is nine feet.

Itchinskoi, the second establishment, is on the Itchil, and has not increased since 1771, when it had ten houses and fifty inhabitants. The third and most ancient establishment is on the Tigil: in 1793 it had a church, forty-five houses, and 338 inhabitants; in 1804 its houses were only increased to fifty.

East Coast. The east coast is entirely mountainous, the shore composed of high rocky cliffs and headlands, with small coves filled with shoals and rocks. The depths, three miles off shore, are thirty to ninety fathoms.

Awatska Bay, on the S.E. part of the peninsula, is a very capacious harbour, and the only one fit for large ships; it is entered through a strait one mile and a half broad and four miles long, within which it expands to a basin twenty-five miles in circuit, with regular depths, from fifteen to seven fathoms. The shores, except on the N.W., are elevated, level, and well wooded.

The bay abounds in cod throughout the year, and when the frost breaks up turbot and rays are taken

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taken in great quantities. Herrings and smelts arrive in April and remain till June, when they are succeeded by shoals of salmon of different species. The rivers Awatska and Paratunka fall into the bay on the north. East Coast.

The bay has three harbours, St. Peter and St. Paul, or Niakina and Nakowoï, on the east, and Tarjinskoï on the south. St. Peter and St. Paul has only room for half a dozen ships, moored head and stern; the south side of the port is formed by a low narrow point of land, on which is the town, which, in 1793, contained only eighty-five Russian inhabitants, and so slow has been its progress, that in 1804 it had but 150 souls, of whom twenty-five only were females. The general neglected state of the country may be inferred from Krusenstern's description of this settlement; "Nothing, says he, is visible here that could persuade any one of its being inhabited by civilized people. The shores of the harbour are strewed with stinking fish, for which a number of half-starved dogs are seen fighting. In vain the eye looks round for a single decent house, for a road, or even a well beaten path. No meadow, no garden, no enclosure of any kind denotes cultivation or property, a few decayed huts and balagans, some planks laid across the rivulets, which require the greatest caution in passing them, half a dozen cows pasturing, and innumerable dogs lying in holes, which they scratch in the ground to defend themselves from the flies, are the objects which St. Peter and St. Paul's present to the disappointed traveller."

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East Coast. The harbour of Rakowoï has its name from abounding in cray fish: it is three leagues deep and two miles broad, with twelve fathoms depth. Tarjinskoï harbour is separated from the sea by a narrow neck of land: it is five miles deep and half a mile broad, with six fathoms depth.

Cape Cronotskoï is the south point of a large bay, at the north extremity of which the river Kamtschatka empties itself, after a course of 500 wersts. The greatest depth in the entrance at high water is eight feet, and in bad weather the sea breaks quite across; small vessels can however ascend it 200 wersts. Six wersts from the entrance, on the left side, is a considerable lagoon frequented by seals. Nishnei, or Lower Kamtschatka, is on the river, thirty wersts from its mouth; it is the seat of government, and had in 1793, 508 inhabitants, in 1804 its houses were only 100.

The river Anapkoï, the northern boundary of the peninsula, on the east empties itself into the Gulf of Oukinskoï. Cape Ilpinskoï is the north point of this gulf, and is a high rocky promontory, joined to the main by a low sandy isthmus, at times overflowed by the sea. In the gulf is the island Karaga inhabited by Koriaks.

Koriaks. From Kamtschatka to the Frozen Ocean the coast of Asia is inhabited by the Koriaks and the Tcutktches. The former, whose number is thought not to exceed 2,000 individuals, occupy the banks of

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of the Oluthora and Anadyr; they are the same race as the Kamtschadales, but are erratic: their huts are a kind of conical tents of poles, covered with rein-deer skins.

The Tchuktches inhabit the peninsula between the Gulf of Anadyr and the Frozen Ocean; their number is estimated at 1,000 families, divided into little societies or tribes, some of whom fix themselves on the banks of rivers or sea coast, for the purpose of fishing, while others lead an erratic life with their rein-deer, wandering in search of pasture. These animals seem to be almost the only compensation that nature has bestowed on these polar tribes for their many deprivations; their milk and their flesh afford a constant supply of food, their skins serve for clothing, their bladders for bottles, and their bowels for cord; while harnessed to the sledge, they draw their masters over the ice and snow; they are not, however, capable of much fatigue, twelve to eighteen miles a day being as much as they can perform. Their food costs their owner nothing, the moss they scratch from under the snow being almost their only nourishment. It is said that some of the Tchuktches have no less than 50,000 of these animals. Tchuktches.

The features of the Tchuktches are coarse, and according to travellers have nothing of the Tartar cast. Their huts or tents are formed of four poles, which serve to extend a canopy or covering of reindeer skins; the fire-place is in the middle, and the beds which surround it are composed

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Tchuktches. composed of branches of trees and skins: these dens are filthy in the extreme, and the manner of feeding is equally disgusting. The dress of the women consists of a single garment of skin fastened round the neck, so that by untying a knot they appear in a perfect state of nature. The Tchuktches and Koriaks are constantly at war, their weapons are bows and arrows..

The description of these barren and frozen coasts will not long detain us, for they offer little to create an interest or to gratify curiosity. The Gulf of Anadyr is a deep indentation which receives the river of the same name: the south point of the gulf is Cape St. Thadeus, and the north cape Tchukutskoï. The bays of Metshigmena and St. Laurence are deep inlets, between Cape Tchukutskoï and the east cape; this latter is the extremity of a high peninsula joined to the main by a narrow low isthmus.

The islands which from their proximity seem properly to belong to the Asiatic continent, are Behring's and Copper Island, S.E. of Cape Kamtschatka. The first is distant from the peninsula sixty leagues, and is about forty miles long; towards the S.W. it is mountainous, but level on the N.E. On the north are two bays with rivulets, where the Russian hunters sometimes winter. The island is without wood, uninhabited and surrounded by reefs: it is said that, in north winds,

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winds, pieces of native copper are found washed upon the shore.

Maidenoi-Ostrof, or Copper Island, is nine leagues east of Behring's, having many rocks between them; it is eight leagues long, high and barren. The islands called Sinde by the Russians, are the same as the St. Laurence Island of Behring, and the Clarke's Island of Cook; by the Tchuktches they are named *Euvogen*. They are sixteen leagues S.E. of Tchukutskoï Cape, are composed of high mountains, and are frequented by the Tchuktches.

Anderson's Island of Cook has been sought for in vain by the Russians, it is therefore probable that our navigator was deceived by a fog bank.

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FORMOSA.

From the S.E. coast of China to the peninsula of Kamtschatka a chain of islands encloses the seas of Corea, of Japan, and of Tartary. The first of this chain is FORMOSA, called by the natives *Pacahimba*, and by the Chinese *Tai-wan:* it is separated from the Chinese province of Fo-kien by a channel twenty leagues wide, and extends between the latitudes 21° 54′ N. and 25° 18′. A chain of mountains runs through it from north to south, abounding in mineral productions, particularly gold, silver, copper, quicksilver, vermilion, coal, &c.

The island is divided into eight provinces, three of which, on the west coast, are subject to China, and in these only the gold mines are worked. These provinces are the richest of the island, being covered with magnificent trees and watered by an infinity of rivulets, which fertilize the vallies, abounding in rice, sugar-canes, &c. The island has few wild animals, except deer and monkies, and it is without horses, asses, or sheep. Bullocks are used in lieu of the former for labour. The woods abound in pheasants, heath cocks, wild pigeons, &c. The climate is healthy and temperate,

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temperate, but the island is subject to frequent earthquakes.

Tai-wan, the principal town of the Chinese, is on the west coast, is very populous and rich, in all respects resembling the Chinese cities of the continent. It is defended by a fortress, built by the Dutch, and named Fort Zelandia, still in good repair. The harbour only admits vessels of eight feet, and in general the other ports are also shoal, and the navigation obstructed by sands.

The inhabitants of the eastern side of the island are described as savages, without regular government. In their features and complexions they resemble the Malays, but speak a language that has no affinity to any other. Their cabins are of bamboo, without furniture; their cloathing only a piece of cloth wrapped round the waist, and their food what they procure by the chase. They raise ornamental cicatrices on the skin to resemble trees, flowers, and animals, and blacken their teeth. Their religion is an idolatrous polytheism. They dispose of their dead in the same manner as the islanders of the Pacific, exposing the bodies on stages. By their religion women are not allowed to bear children until the age of thirty-six, and the priestesses maintain this custom by various barbarous practices. It is also said that there is a race of gigantic negroes on the island.

The small islands round Formosa are Lamay, three leagues from the S.W. point, two leagues in circuit, and well cultivated.

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The Vela Rete Rocks are a reef above water, five leagues south of the south point of Formosa.

Bottol Tobago Sima, twenty leagues east of the S.E. point of Formosa, is a high island, saddle shaped, five leagues in circuit, well cultivated and inhabited. South by east of it five miles is a lesser island.

The Cumbrian's Reef is seven or eight leagues south of Bottol-Tobago, in the fair way of the channel, between it and the Bashee Islands.

The Piscadores, or Fisher's Islands, Pehoe of the Chinese, are a group of islands and rocks in the channel of Formosa, about eight leagues distant from the coast of the latter. Pehoe or Pong-hu the largest, is well inhabited by Chinese. These islands extend fifty miles north and south, and have good roads among them.

A chain of islands extends from the north end of Formosa to the Japan archipelago, and are comprised in two groups. The westernmost group, or the nearest to Formosa, are named by the natives *Madjicosemah*, and are seventeen in number: the westernmost of this group is a solitary low island, four leagues distant from the body of the group, and named Patchow. The easternmost island is named Tay-pin-shan.

The Lieu-kieu (Lieu-chew, Likeujo, Leut-cheu, Lekuejo, &c. &c.) islands, form the second group, and are nineteen in number. The most considerable is named the Great Lieu-kieu, being thirty-five leagues long, north and south, and six broad: on its

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its N.W. coast is the harbour of Napakihn, or Napachan, which is entered by a very narrow entrance with only two fathoms and a half at low water, but within it expands to a large basin, with seven fathoms. At each side of the entrance is a square stone fort, with holes as if for wall pieces. The town on this harbour is the principal of the island, and the royal residence. These islands, together with the Madjiscosemah, are governed by one sovereign, tributary to China, though the natives are of the Japanese race. The islands are fertile, producing wheat, millet, maize, rice, pepper, camphor, silk, besides other objects of commerce, as salt, coral, pearls. They abound in horned cattle, hogs of a very large breed, and fowls; they also possess horses and deer. The natives carry on an established trade with China, Formosa, and Japan.

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ISLES OF JAPAN.

The Empire of JAPAN, as it is usually called by Europeans, consists of three considerable, and a great number of small islands, separated from the peninsula of Corea and the coast of Chinese Tartary by the Strait of Corea and the Sea of Japan, and extending between the latitudes of 30° and 41°.

These islands were first made known to Europe by Marc Paul, who collected some details respecting them from the Chinese, under the name of *Zipangri*. In 1535 or 1548, they were first visited by the Portuguese.

The name Japan (Je-pen or Je-paun) is Chinese, and signifies the Country of the Rising Sun. The three principal islands are Niphon, Kiusiu and Sikokf. Their surface presents a variety of mountains, hills and valleys. Many of the mountains contain volcanos, but in general they are well clothed with evergreen trees, and give birth to numerous rivulets, which fertilize the valleys, but seldom arrive at the magnitude of rivers. The hills are cultivated to their summits, and present the smiling picture of human industry, in the midst of vestiges of physical convulsions. In the island of Niphon, in the centre of an extensive valley,

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valley, is a lake, said to be in length equal to fifty hours of a horse's pace, and one-third of that in breadth. The east coasts are lined with rocks, against which the sea beats with incessant fury. The climate approaches to humid, the most abundant rains falling after midsummer, and during this season it thunders almost every night. The maximum of the thermometer, at Nangasaki, in August is ninety-eight, and the minimum in January thirty-five. The summer heat is, however, moderated by frequent sea breezes, and the snow never lies on the ground more than a few days.

Rice is the principal grain cultivated, but wheat, barley, rye, and Indian corn are also produced; the potatoes are indifferent, but peas, beans, cabbages and turnips are equal to those of Europe. The islands have no apple trees, but pears grow to a very large size; and oranges, figs, shaddocks, bananas, cocoa-nuts, jacks, and other fruits of the tropics arrive at perfection; ginger, black pepper, sugar, cotton and indigo are cultivated in great quantity; the tea shrub grows wild in the hedges, and on the sides of the lesser mountains are found the Indian laurel and camphor. The islands also afford other medicinal plants, such as the muquet of Japan, the aromatic acore, squine root, cerete of Japan, moxa, snake wood, murge root, the opium poppy, jalap, &c. The cypress, larch, and weeping willow are common.

The islands have but a scanty proportion of quadrupeds, there being but few hogs, and neither goats nor sheep; the two first are consi-

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dered as injurious to agriculture, and therefore are not allowed to propagate. The horses and black cattle are in small number, and the only animals used in agriculture are buffaloes and very small cows. The wild animals are confined to wolves and bears, chiefly towards the north, and foxes. The flesh of the bear is eaten, but foxes are held in abhorrence, under the belief that they are evil spirits which have assumed this shape. Dogs, however, make up for the scarcity of other quadrupeds, for, by a law of one of the emperors, particularly attached to the canine race, and which has become a sacred custom, they are protected and nourished at the expense of the towns.

The only game are pheasants and partridges.

The Japanese islands abound in the precious metals, and the sovereign claims two-thirds of the produce of the mines. They have also rich mines of copper, mixed with considerable quantities of gold, which afford the most lucrative object of foreign commerce. Iron is the scarcest metal, but it is still found in sufficient quantity for the necessary domestic utensils and arms. Sulphur and pummice stone are in abundance; and coal is said to be found to the north. The islands have also white marble, red agates, asbestos, potters' earth, and other minerals. A kind of red naptha is burned in lamps. Hot mineral springs are frequent, and are had recourse to in various diseases.

The Japanese are of a middle size, well made and robust, their complexion either brown or pale white like the Chinese; but their distinctive feature

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ture is the eye, which is small, oblong, and sunk in the head. They have the head large, the neck short, the nose large, hair black, thick, and shining, from the oil they rub into it. These caracteristics seem to denote their origin from the Chinese, with a mixture of Mongul or Manchou Tartars, but their language has no affinity to that of either of these people. According to their traditions, there formerly existed in the island of Niphon two other races, the *Mosins*, or Hairy Kuriliens on the north, and a nation of Negroes on the south.

The ancient government of Japan resembled that of Thibet, the Daïri, or sovereign pontiff, answering to the Grand Lama. In the year 1143 (according to the Japanese annals) this prince confided the military government of his dominions to a kubo, whose office becoming hereditary. His power at last predominated over that of the daïri, and in 1585 the latter was deprived of even the shadow of political authority. Since that period, the government of Japan may be considered as a hereditary absolute monarchy, controled by a great number of hereditary absolute princes, of whom the mutual jealousies, and the hostages they are obliged to deliver, secure their submission to the supreme power. Each of these petty sovereigns keeps a standing army on foot. The laws of Japan have been greatly praised by some travellers, while by others they have been as greatly decried. The former tell us, that justice is expeditious and executed with rigour, without respect to persons,

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sons, except that the nobles may commute certain punishments by pecuniary fines. That the police is well organized and vigilant, and that the inhabitants of every street being made responsible for the crimes committed by any individual of it, crimes are consequently rare. But, on the other hand, we are informed that the punishments are barbarously cruel, that mincing a criminal to pieces, opening the belly with a knife, suspending him by iron hooks through the ribs, or boiling him in oil, are the most common. Though, in such a system of legislation, crimes must certainly be rare, it at the same time deprives innocence of its tranquillity and society of its happiness, and surely it is better to run the risque of being once or twice robbed in the course of life, than to be every day in fear of being boiled in oil, to expiate a crime committed by another.

The standing armies of the different princes of Japan are estimated at 468,000 infantry and 58,000 cavalry, which would suppose a population of twenty to thirty millions; but most probably there is in those estimates a great deal of exaggeration.

The Japanese appear to be less advanced in navigation than the Chinese, the government strictly prohibiting the going out of sight of land; and to insure the compliance with this restriction, the junks are built in a manner that unfits them for the open sea. Those seen by Broughton were from thirty to three hundred tons, with but one mast and a single sail of cotton; they are unable

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able to *tack*, but *ware* in a short compass; their anchors resemble *graplings* with a number of hooks. Other navigators describe them as so low abaft, as to be unable to go before the wind, when it blows fresh, without great danger. The Japanese use a compass nearly similar to that of the Chinese.* They pretend to have anciently navigated to Formosa and Java, and on the north to the coast of America, but at present their voyages extend no farther north than Jesso. The roads throughout Japan are wide, with ditches to carry off the water, and kept in the highest order, which is not, however, difficult, there being no wheeled carriages, the common modes of travelling being either on horseback or in palanquins.

The Japanese are divided into two religious sects, called Sinto and Budso; the former believe in a Supreme Being, but who they conceive is too exalted to concern himself with their affairs, but they invoke divinities of an inferior order as mediators;—they believe that the souls of the good inhabit luminous regions near the empire, while those of the wicked wander in the air, until they have expiated their faults. The Sintos abstain from animal food, not from a belief in the metempsycosis, but because they abhor the effusion of blood, and dare not touch a dead body.

The sect of Budso is the same as that of Budha, or Boudh of India, mixed with some foreign superstitions.

Between

* See Note (I).

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Between 1549 and 1638, the Jesuits were employed in introducing Christianity into Japan; but two persecutions annihilated the infant church. In the first, in 1590, 20,000 Christians were massacred, and in 1638, 37,000 * shared the same fate. The political intrigues of the Jesuits, and their violent intolerance, is generally supposed to have been the chief cause that rendered the Christian doctrine odious to the sovereigns and people of Japan; and since the last epoch it has been held in abhorrence by the Japanese of all classes.

The civilization of the Japanese appears to have been long stationary, like that of the Chinese; but several particulars, in which the two people differ, afford a much greater probability of improvement in the former than the latter. A more manly character and a greater degree of political liberty bring the Japanese nearer to the European. Their learned language is said to be that of the ancient Chinese, but their alphabet instead of whole words designs single letters only. A number of the Japanese read and speak Dutch, and the elements of natural history and medecine have began to be taught according to works in that language.

The Japanese are confined to one wife, but the concubines live in the house with her, and neither are shut up as in China. The dead bodies of people of distinction are burned, those of the common class buried.

The

* This is according to the missionaries, but cotemporary writers make the total number of Christians only 20,000.

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The most considerable branch of the Japanese commerce is with China, from whence are procured raw silk, sugar, turpentine, and drugs, in exchange for copper bars, varnish and gum lac.

Niphon. NIPHON, the principal of the Japan islands, is 300 leagues long, but of very unequal breath, from seventy to thirty leagues. Jeddo, the metropolis, is on the east side, and is said to be so extensive as to require twenty-one hours to walk round it, and the palace of the emperor, we are assured, is surrounded by a wall of stone, five leagues in circuit, with ditches and drawbridges. The houses are of wood, two stories, the ground floor towards the street being shops. The gulf, in which the city is situated, is so shoal, that vessels of any size cannot approach the town nearer than five miles. Before the bay is a group of islands, one of which is a volcano.

The other towns of the island, of which we have any knowledge, are Gasima and Nambu to the N.E. On the S.W. are Odowarra, Okosaki and Kawna; the latter one of the richest of the empire with a strong castle insulated.

Osacca on the south at the mouth of the Gava, the largest river of the island, is a rich and large town, intersected by canals, crossed by handsome bridges of cedar, and is the port of MIACO, the second city of the empire situated on the same river. Miaco is the residence of the Daïri, and the principal seat of commerce and learning. The temple of *Daibouts* surpasses all others in Japan,

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Nipon. Japan, though it is built entirely of wood. The population of this city, according to Kempfer, is upwards of 400,000.

Fiogo, on the same Gulf as Osacca, has a port formed by a mole which shelters it from the south: it is well built and populous. Muru, near the south extremity of the island, has a good port. The towns of the west and north coasts of the island are unknown to Europeans, and it is the same with those of the island of SIKOKF, which has never been visited; it is thirty-six leagues long and twenty broad.

Kiusiu. The Island of KIUSIU is eighty leagues long and fifty broad. On the west coast is NANGASAKI, the only port of Japan into which foreign vessels are admitted, and this privilege is confined to the Chinese and Dutch. The harbour is surrounded by mountainous shores and is a mile in length, with depth for the largest ships over a muddy bottom; the rise of tide is considerable. The town is entirely open, the streets winding, with canals to receive the waters that descend from the mountains that rise all round the city; every street has a gate at each end which is shut at night, and all communication prevented; each street is sixty fathoms long and the number of houses about 1,000. The isle of Decima, in which the Dutch are shut up, is a rock 288 feet long, separated from the city by a narrow artificial ditch crossed by a bridge, but fordable at low water; the rock is entirely surrounded by a strong enclosure of planks,

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planks, with but one gate towards the water and another towards the town. Kiusiu.

Kokura, on the north side of the island, is one of the largest and most commercial towns of Japan; it is on a river, and is surrounded by high walls, flanked with towers and encompassed by a ditch. The port can only receive small vessels, being choaked up by the mud of the river. Songa, a town of this island, is celebrated for its beautiful women and semi-transparent porcelain.

The lesser Japan islands are numerous but are little known. Ufu-Sima is the principal of a group of eight, between the Lieu-Kieu Islands and Kiusiu. Tanaa-sima is the largest of a group of seven, S.W. of Kiusiu. Li-Keo is separated from the south end of this latter island by the Strait of Van-Diemen. The inhabitants of Li-Keo are described as cultivating their fields to the music of lyres, and gathering two crops of rice a year. Cangox-Sima is worthy of notice as being the spot where the Portuguese first landed.

The Gotto Isles are a group off the west point of Kiusiu. Tsus-Sima, in the middle of the Strait of Corea, is tributary to Japan; it is of moderate height, the vallies well cultivated, and the west coast lined with rocks. The Oki Isles are a group north of the south end of Niphou.

South east of Niphon is a group of volcanic islands, of which Fatsisio is the largest, though only three or four miles long. Its shores rise perpendicularly to the height of eighty fathoms, and are only accessible by rope ladders; hence probably

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bably it is that this island is appropriated as a state prison. One of the islands throws out flames.

ISLES OF JESSO—KURILES.

North of the Japanese empire two large islands and many lesser ones form an independent archipelago, which was very confusedly known until the voyages of La Perouse, Broughton, and Krusenstern. The first notions of these countries were collected by the Dutch from the Japanese, but were so vague, that it was doubted whether they formed a great island between Asia and America, or a peninsula joined to Tartary. In 1643, the Dutch of the Moluccas sent two ships to explore the sea north of Japan, and to seek for the northern passage. These vessels, named the Kastricom and Breskes, sailed from Ternate, and kept company to within fifty leagues of Jeddo, the capital of Japan, where they separated in a storm. De Vries, in the Kastricom, ascertained the existence of an island between Japan on the south and Asia on the N.E., to which he gave the name of *Staten-Eyland;* to the east of this he discovered another land, which he called *Company's Land,* but did not ascertain its extent. It appears also that he sailed along the east and N.E. coasts of Matsumay or Jesso, and was driven by the currents through the strait which separates that island from Sagalin; but a fog preventing him

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him from seeing the land in the strait, he conceived that of Sagalin to be a continuation of Matsumay. At the same period, the north extremity of Niphon being placed two degrees too far south, a great space was left between this island and Matsumay, while, according to the Japanese, they were only separated by a narrow strait. About this time, also, the missionaries in China collected some information respecting the island of Sagalin and a strait of Tessoy. In the attempts to combine these uncertain indications, the most celebrated geographers produced only imperfect sketches. Danville, who twice endeavoured to elucidate the question, joined Sagalin on the south to the continent of Tartary, and reduced its dimensions so as only to cover the mouth of the Amur.

The Russians become masters of Kamtschatka, extended their researches along the chain of Kuriles, and in 1713 a Cossack reached the island of Kunachir, forming a part of the land of Jesso of the Dutch. In 1736, Spanbergen, a Dane in the service of Russia, visited the east side of Urup, or Company's Land, Atorku, or Staten-Eyland, Kunashir, and Matsumay, and arrived at the coast of Niphon; but he was deficient in the means of ascertaining the positions of these lands, neither did he ascertain their respective insularity. In 1777, a Russian circumnavigated the islands Atorku and Urup, and the existence of an archipelago being thus finally ascertained, geographers were puzzled to reconcile the new discoveries with the famous land of Jesso,

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and one of them * cutting the knot, supposed an earthquake to have broken this land into islands.

Such was the imperfect knowledge of this archipelago until the voyages of La Pérouse and Broughton. The former navigator passed through the strait of Corea, and after examining the coasts of Tartary and Sagalin, which form the gulf to which he gave the name of Channel of Tartary, he returned to the south, and passing between Sagalin and Matsumay (which is evidently the strait of Tessoy mentioned by the missionaries, but to which the name of La Perouse has been attached), he ascertained the position and extent of the southern islands seen by Spanbergen. Broughton, after examining the Lieu-Kieu Islands, the south and east coasts of the Corea, and the east coasts of Japan, terminated his researches at the island of Mareekan.

JESSO.

The island called by the Japanese *Jesso* (the shore) and *Mosin* (the body hairy) is named *Chica* by the natives, according to La Perouse, and *Insu* (Greenland) according to Broughton; it is separated from Niphon by the strait of Sangaar, five leagues broad, named by the Japanese *Matsi*, or Strait, and the town on the south Matsimay, which

* Muller.

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which name is sometimes applied to the whole island.

This island is entirely composed of high and well wooded mountains, from whence descend numerous rivers. The trees are oak, elm, ash, maple, birch, beech, linden yew, silver pine, poplar, yoke elm, willow, and a great variety of shrubs. The fruit trees are chesnuts, plums, with grapes, and many species of berries. Of esculent vegetables, most of those common to Europe are found here, either wild or cultivated, such are wheat, maize, millet, French beans, peas, lentils, turnips, reddishes, carrots, beet, garlic, onions, besides hemp, tobacco, &c. The wild animals are deer, bears, foxes, and rabbits; the bears are taken when young, and reared like dogs till a certain age, when they are confined in cages, where they are fattened for food. It is said the women allow them to suck them when first taken; and although they feast on them with the rest of the family, they weep for their death, as for that of a child. The shores abound with seals and sea-otters, and the bays with fish, particularly sprats, which are driven into them in immense shoals by the whales. The rivers are also full of salmon.

The proper natives of Jesso, or *Mosins*, according to Krusenstern, call themselves *Aïnos;* they are taller and stouter than the Japanese; their faces are covered with thick black beards, which confounds with their black and rather frizzled hair; and, according to Broughton, their bodies

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are also covered with hair more than any other people, whence their Japanese denomination of Mosin. Both sexes paint or *tatoo* figures of flowers or animals on the lips and back of the hands.

Their arms are the bow and arrow; they are said to be without laws, money, or writing, and the only religious worship observed amongst them is the pouring libations and lighting fires in honour of the Japanese divinity, *Kamoi*. They allow of polygamy, and punish adultery in both parties; but a man who receives from a woman her earrings is held guiltless, as it is then supposed that she has seduced him. Incest is not considered a crime, and brothers and sisters marry. Their language has no affinity to any other known one, but is neither rude nor disagreeable to the ear. The Mosins trade with the Southern Kurilians by barter. When the latter want commodities they appear near the shores of Jesso, and the Mosins immediately lay the objects they are supposed to want on the beach and retire. The Kurilians then land, and selecting those they mean to take, place them on one side, with the objects they intend to give in exchange by them, and retire in their turns, when the Mosins reappear; and it is by a succession of this silent bargaining that they at last arrive at an agreement. The chief objects of commerce are dried fish, dried sea-weed (*fucus sacharinus*) which is considered a delicacy by the Japanese, fish oil, beaver, zibelline, otter, fox, and bear skins, &c. The dress of the Mosins is principally

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principally composed of cloth made from the inner bark of the linden: both sexes are fond of smoking tobacco.

The southern extremity of Jesso is subject to the Japanese, who keep the Mosins in the most abject state of subjection, and prohibit them from all intercourse with strangers. The principal town of the Japanese, and where the viceroy resides, is Matsimay, on the south coast, a natural fortification, inaccessible on the side of the land.

Volcano Bay, visited and named by Broughton from three volcanoes on its shores, is also on the south end of the island; it is surrounded by a beautiful country rising gradually from the water, covered with verdure, and finely dotted with clumps of trees. In the N.E. part of the bay is Eudermo harbour, sheltered from all winds, in four and five fathoms, and with wood and water in abundance.

On the west side of the island are several Japanese posts; and on this side are the isles Osima, Kosima, Riosiri,* rising to a great peak, named De l'Angle by La Perouse, and Refunsiri. The great gulf of Stroganof of Krusenstern is near the middle of the west coast of Jesso, and on the north coast is Atkis, a safe port, surrounded by woody mountains, and inhabited solely by Mosins.

* *Siri*, or *Schir*, in the language of the Mosins, has the same signification as *Sima* in Japanese, *i. e.* island.

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The islands north of Jesso are included by the Japanese in the general name of Kuriles, which it would appear signifies the *country of sea weeds.* The natives of Jesso reckon thirty-five islands, but the recent charts of Krusenstern mark only twenty-six. This chain is separated into two groups by the Boussole channel of la Perouse, and which may be properly distinguished by the names of the *Great*, or *Japanese Kuriles*, and the *Lesser*, or *Kamschatka Kuriles;* the former are inhabited by the Mosins, who have been called the *Hairy Kurilians*, to distinguish them from the natives of the Little Kuriles, who are of the Kamtschadale race, and without beards.

The principal islands of the Great Kuriles are Chicotan, or Chi-Kutan,* separated from Jesso by a narrow strait: this island is claimed by Japan. Kunaschir, the next island to the north, is diversified by mountains and vallies, covered with maples, pines, and the *pinus cembra.* Etorpu or Atorku (*Staten-Eyland* of the Dutch) is also covered with pine forests, and has a burning volcano. Urup (Company's land of the Dutch) is cloathed with pines and alders, and is separated from Etorpu by Strait de Vries. Mareekan, the northernmost of the Great Kuriles, has only the same trees as the last: it is twelve leagues long, with an apparently volcanic peak in the centre. On the N.E. is a large bay, but whose narrow entrance

* *Kutan* in the Mosin dialect signifies country.

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trance is crossed by a bar, with only two fathoms. The Russians formed an establishment here, but which had been abandoned before Broughton visited it.

The Little Kuriles, which extend to Cape Lopotka of Kamtschatka, present a chain of rugged, sterile, and generally volcanic islands, through whose straits the tides run with great velocity. The names of these islands are so differently written by travellers and geographers, that it is difficult to give a correct list of them. They seem to stand in the following succession from south to north: Raschaooa, in which is a volcanic peak, named Peak of Saritscheff; Rakhoa, or Rockkake; Motua, or Mutova, twenty miles long, on the south has a lofty volcano, in a state of ignition, on the north it is tolerably fruitful, but has not above 100 inhabitants; Keyto, or Ketoi, uninhabited, is nearly the size of the last, rocky, but with wood; Syas, or Schiasch-Kutan, an extinct volcano, uninhabited; Ekarma, or Ikurma, a burning volcano, with sulphurous springs; Etrama-kutan, an extinct volcano, uninhabited; Ana-kutan, twenty leagues long, with two volcanic peaks, has little wood; Schioutschey; Makan; Kur-assey; Schirinki has steep rocky shores, covered with moss; Poromuschir, or Poroluschir, high and woody; Mayil; Shoom, or Shoomska, four leagues south of Cape Lopatka; Alaid, a conical volcano.

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These islands are considered as belonging to the Russian empire, as an appendage of Kamtschatka; and their few inhabitants are, in the same manner as those of the peninsula, subject to a tribute of skins, of the different kinds of foxes and of sea otters, with which these islands formerly abounded, but which have been much thinned by the constant chase of them.

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THE GRAND ARCHIPELAGO.

Quitting the old continent, of which we have made the tour, a new scene awaits us in the immense archipelago between Asia and America, occupying an extent of 3,000 leagues from west to east, and presents scenes capable of rousing the most languid imagination, by the variety and novelty of its physical and moral appearances. The gradual discovery of this vast labyrinth of islands has been the cause of its receiving no general denomination, and of its having been considered an appendage of Asia. Latterly, however, geographers have began to treat it as a *fifth* part of the earth, and as such have sought to attach to it distinctive appellations, either as a whole or in divisions; such as *Austral-Asia* and *Australia*, *Notasia* and *Polynesia*, while a recent French geographer * has proposed the generic denomination of *Océanique*, which certainly is free from any other objection than the insurmountable one of not agreeing with the English language, which does not admit the employment of an adjective substantively. With respect to ourselves, as our wish extends no farther than to give all possible clearness

* Malte Brun, Précis. de la Géog.

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clearness to our descriptions, we shall consider this *Grand Archipelago* as composed of several lesser ones, defined either by natural limits or by the races inhabiting them.

1. The first of these divisions that presents itself is the *Malay Archipelago*, of which the *inclusive* limits are the islands in the Bay of Bengal on the west, the Philippines on the north, and the Moluccas on the east.

2. The *Papua Archipelago*, bounded on the west by the Moluccas, and including the New Hebrides and New Caledonia, &c. on the east.

3. New Holland or Terra Australis, and New Zealand; and

4. For the fourth and last division, we shall adopt the significant and appropriate term *Polynesia;* which will include the numerous islands scattered over the Pacific, and which we shall subdivide into chains or groups.

The grand feature in this fifth part of the globe, is the continuous direction of the vast chains of mountains that run through it; thus from the Andamans to Timor, a chain extends nearly N.W. and S.E. until it meets another chain composing the Philippines, Celebes, Moluccas, New Guinea, where under the equator its summits retain perpetual snow; and from whence it continues its direction to the S.E., skirting the east coast of Australia, and terminating only at the south promontory of Van Dieman's Land. A third chain forms a continuity from the parallel of Japan through the Mariannes and New Philippines, Solomon's Islands, the New Hebrides and New Caledonia, whose

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whose general direction is also from N.W. to S.E., and which direction is likewise preserved in almost all the groups that form the division of Polynesia.

Two grand formations prevail throughout this fifth portion of the earth, by each of which innumerable islands have been raised from the abysses of the deep. In the first, the imperceptible zoophite creates a constantly increasing mass of calcareous rock, which at length becomes an island, and this island a garden; while, in the second formation, volcanic fires have produced vast peaks towering above the ocean, and whose sides are covered with scoriæ and lava, in many instances decomposed into the most fruitful soil.

As this great archipelago has had two strikingly obvious manners of formation, so in its inhabitants we find two grand races, totally differing in physical appearance and in moral character: these are the *Malay* and the *Papua* or *Oceanic Negro*. The Malay is no longer considered as aboriginal of the little peninsula of Malacca, into which by his own tradition he is only a comparatively modern emigrant from Sumatra and Java; neither is this race confined to the archipelago to which we have assigned its name, but is diffused throughout the vast Polynesia, from the Mariannes to the solitary Easter Island, and from Owhyee to New Zealand. Throughout this immense extent the Malay physiognomy cannot be mistaken, and the Malay language is universal, with no greater variations than are found in European languages deriving from the same root. The wide dispersion of this race, in islands sometimes separated by many hundred leagues of

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of sea, has been a subject of much difficulty to the learned; some supposing it from America; but both the physical appearance and language contradict this idea. Others suppose the Malays to be the aborigines of a continent submerged, while others have attempted to trace them to an ancient civilized people of Java connected with India.

The second race, the *Papua* or *Negro* of the Grand Ocean, is distinguished by the obtuseness of the facial angle, the thickness of the lips, the hair frizzled without being woolly, the members disproportionately long and very slender, and the sooty complexion. This race occupies New Guinea and the neighbouring islands, New Holland, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and the Fidji Islands. Remnants of it are also found in the Philippines, by the name of *Ygolotes* and *Negritos*, and in the Moluccas, where they are called *Haraforas* and *Alfurexes*; the *Googoos* of Sumatra seem also to be of the same race. The physical conformation of the Papua, and particularly the squareness of the head, distinguishes him from the African negro, and authorizes the supposition of his being indigenous in these countries. With respect to language it affords no ground for reasoning, every tribe having a jargon radically differing from each other.

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ISLANDS IN THE BAY OF BENGAL.

Preparis Islands.

The Preparis is a cluster of small islands midway between Cape Negrais and Great Andaman Island. The largest is three leagues long, moderately high and woody, with fresh water. The rest are islets, surrounded by rocks; they are uninhabited.

Cocos Islands.

The Cocos are two low swampy islands, occupying a space of four leagues, and nine leagues N.E. off the north end of the Great Andaman. They are uninhabited, but covered with most luxuriant cocoa palms, as their name denotes. Both these islands and the Preparis abound in monkeys and squirrels.

Andaman Islands.

The Andaman Islands are two principal ones, called the Great and Little, and several islets and rocks above water, between 13° 38′ and 10° 30′. The Great Andaman is the northernmost, and is forty leagues in length; though separated by a narrow boat channel nearly in the middle, it is considered as one island. The coasts are in general rocky with little sandy coves, affording safe landing to boats. Except those sandy beaches on which grow a thorny fern and wild rattan, the whole surface of the islands are covered with wood, rendered almost inpenetrable by creeping vines and parasite plants. The islands are generally composed of hills of middling

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Andaman Islands.

middling height; but in the larger is one, from its shape named the Saddle, which is estimated to have an elevation of 2,400 feet, it being seen twenty-five leagues at sea. The islands have no rivers, but a great number of streams descend from the hills, and form little cascades embosomed among the trees. The soil is in some places a vegetable earth, in others a red or whitish clay, mixed with sand and pebbles. At the northern extremity of the great island some appearances of minerals have been discovered, particularly tin; here also has been found a kind of stone with veins of a brilliant gold colour. The forests afford a variety of timber trees, which arrive at an enormous size, some measuring thirty feet in circumference. Amongst the lesser trees are the ebony and the Alexandrian laurel. The islands also produce the olive, the almond, and the mellori,* the aloe, the cotton shrub, and the bamboo; but what is singular, they have few or no cocoa-nut trees. The quadrupeds are wild hogs, monkeys, and rats. The caverns of the rocks afford edible birds' nests. Fish is abundant, and of many kinds; and the beaches are covered with beautiful shell-fish and good oysters.

The inhabitants of the Andamans are perfect negroes, and exist in the most degraded state of nature. They resemble the negroes of Mosambique, but in general are more ugly, and of very small

* Called *larum* by the natives; it produces a fruit thirty pounds weight, sometimes called the Nicobar bread fruit.

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small stature, the men seldom exceeding five feet. Their limbs are very slender, their bellies protuberant, their heads large, and their whole appearance depicts a horrible mixture of famine and ferocity; both sexes go totally naked. They have no idea of agriculture, nor of laying up provision for the morrow, but depend for their daily subsistence on what the forests or the sea afford them; and, as in the stormy season the fishery is very precarious, it is not impossible but they may be sometimes driven to feed on each other. Every morning they roll themselves in mud to defend their skins from the bites of insects, and smear their hair with red ochre or vermilion mixed with grease. The men are crafty, vindictive and treacherous. Their sole employment is endeavouring to procure food with their bows and arrows, with which they shoot the wild boars and birds of the forests, as well as the fish that approach the shore; they have besides nets for taking small fish. The women collect the shell fish when the tide is out. They broil their flesh or fish the moment it is taken, and eat it without salt or vegetables. Andaman Islands.

Their huts are formed of three or four poles stuck in the ground, tied together at top, and covered with branches of trees, with a hole at the bottom of one side to creep in at. Their canoes are trunks of trees hollowed by fire, or with stone implements, for they have no iron. They also cross the bays and channels on rafts of bamboo. Their arrows are pointed either with the bones of fish or the tusks of the wild boar; and they have besides

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Andaman Islands.

besides bucklers of bark, and clubs of heavy wood. Their sole utensil is a basket of twigs, in which they collect their provisions.

They pay some adoration to the heavenly bodies, believe in genii of the woods, waters, and mountains, and deprecate the wrath of the spirit of the storm in wild choruses, which they chaunt on rocks that overhang the sea. They are immoderately fond of singing and dancing, and one of their dances is singular: forming a ring, they turn round, kicking each others posteriors or their own with their heels. Their language, which has no affinity to any of the dialects of India, is rather soft than gutteral; and their music, which is only vocal, and either recitative or choral, has nothing harsh. They salute by raising one leg and placing the hand on the under part of the thigh. Their number is supposed not to exceed 2,000, dispersed in small societies on the shores of the harbours.

The western monsoon commences at these islands in May, and until November rains are continual: the N.E. monsoon and fine weather then succeeds. The tides are regular, the flood coming from the west and rising eight feet.

The Andamans appear to have been known to the ancients under the name of *Insulæ bonæ fortunæ*, whose inhabitants were anthropophagi, and are described in the relation of the travels of two Mahometans in the ninth century. "Beyond the two islands of *Nadjabalus* (probably Nicobars) is the sea of Andaman. The people of this coast eat

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eat human flesh quite raw. They are black, with woolly hair, and have terrific countenances and eyes; their feet are more than a cubit in length, and they go quite naked." Andaman Islands.

The origin of this race, so totally different from the surrounding ones, affords a subject of interesting enquiry. Some have supposed them to be the descendants of Mosambique negroes, thrown on these islands by the wreck of a Portuguese ship; but this idea falls to the ground, when it is recollected that the description of these islanders by the two Mahometan travellers is nine centuries anterior to the arrival of the Portuguese in India. An accident of this nature might, it is true, have happened to an *Arab* ship in the seventh century; but it seems more just to conclude that the Andamanians are of the race of aboriginal *Oceanic* negroes, met in the Great Archipelago to the east.

In 1791 the East-India Company formed an establishment at Port Cornwallis, on the north end of the great island, as a retreat for the king's ships during the N.E. monsoon; the unhealthiness of the climate, however, carried off a number of the people, and Prince of Wales' Island appearing a more eligible situation, the establishment was withdrawn; and the Andamans still remain unoccupied by Europeans, and affording no objects of commerce, they are never visited but by an occasional king's ship for wood and water. The site of the colony was beautifully picturesque, the harbour being a vast expanse of water land-locked, and interspersed with verdant islands. On

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Andaman Islands.

the S.E. side of the island is an equally excellent harbour, named Port Chatham.

The channel which separates the great and little Andamans is called Duncan's Passage, and is nine leagues broad, with some islands in it. Narcondam is a very high barren island, twenty miles in circuit, and apparently volcanic, its shape being that of a cone with the apex broken off.

Barren Island is a volcano in an igneous state, and subject to violent eruptions, chiefly in the S.W. monsoon or rainy season, on the eastern side of the bay; it is small and covered with wood, except near the crater.

Nicobar Islands.

The NICOBAR Islands are twenty in number, forming a chain between the Andamans and Sumatra; about nine of them are of some size, and hence they are named in Malay the *Sambilang*, or Nine Islands. They are in general mountainous, and covered with impenetrable forests, in which are found the *baringtonia*, *tournefortia*, and *borassus*. The vallies are fertile, but receive no other cultivation from the natives than slightly turning up the soil, and planting the cocoa and areca palms, yams, and sweet potatoes. The spontaneous fruits are the plantain, papa, pine apple, tamarind, mellori, orange, lemon, &c. The wild animals are the hog, hog deer (*babee-roussa* of the Malays), monkeys, squirrels, and rats. The natives breed a great number of hogs, which, being fed entirely on

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on cocoa-nuts, are excellent; they have also plenty of poultry. Among the birds are pheasants, pigeons, and doves, and the *salangane*, (K) which builds its nest in the crevices of the rocks. The bays abound in fish; and ambergris is sometimes found on the shores, which are also frequented by the green turtle. Nicobar Islands.

All the larger Nicobar islands are inhabited by a race, differing both from the natives of Hindostan and from the Malays, but approaching nearest to the latter. Their colour is a deep copper, the lips thick and mouth wide; the heads of newborn infants are flattened by pressing on the occiput, which has the effect of causing the teeth when they grow to project outward; their hair is long and black, they have little beard, and shave the eyebrows. Their clothing is a strip of cloth of the bark of a tree round the middle. Their huts resemble bee-hives, raised off the ground ten feet, and entered by a trap-door below, through which the ladder that serves to ascend by is drawn up; they are thatched with the leaves of the cocoa palm. Ten or twelve of these huts form a village, and they are only met on the shores, the interior being covered with impenetrable wood and uninhabited. The men are indolent, obliging the women to cultivate the ground, and row in the canoes, while they amuse themselves fishing, in which a harpoon or spear alone is used, for they have neither nets nor hooks and lines; the fishing time is the night, when they light fires in their canoes, to attract the fish.

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Nicobar Islands.

Marriages amongst these people are by mutual consent, but the man can put away his wife and take another at his pleasure. Adultery is punished with death when the female is of higher rank than her lover, but among men of the same class it is common to lend each other their wives for a leaf of tobacco; barrenness is a great stain, and the odium is only got rid of on the birth of the third child. They are subject to few diseases, and when ill take no internal medecines, but rub the body with oil, while the priest, who is also the physician, repeats an incantation. Their language is a dialect of the Malay; their amusements are dancing and monotonous and melancholy vocal music, for they have no instruments except the gong. They have no other religion than a superstitious belief in evil spirits. They bury the dead close to the huts, after the relations have howled over the corpse for several hours, and in the grave are deposited areca, cocoa-nuts, and other victuals. The names of the dead are never repeated, but an annual ceremony is performed at the graves, which consists in the women taking out the skull, washing it in cocoa-nut liquor and an infusion of saffron, and again replacing it in the grave; the following day several hogs are sacrificed, with whose blood the men smear their bodies, devour the meat, and wash it down with fermented *toddy* till quite drunk, when they sometimes fall out and fight, but as their only weapons are sticks, lives are seldom lost; for the rest, they are said to be hospitable, honest, and strict to their word. Some

Danish

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Danish missionaries, who remained a considerable time at Katchall, had no success in bringing them to christianity. Nicobar Islands.

The objects the islands afford for commerce are cocoa-nuts (which are esteemed the best in India) and cowries, but they are only taken off by occasional vessels passing to other places.

Carnicobar, the northern island, is six miles long and five broad, low and level; it is well peopled, having many villages on the shores, of fifteen to twenty huts, each containing twenty persons or upwards. Batty Malve, or Bali-malu, also called the Quoin, from its shape, is not above four miles in circuit, and is composed of rock covered with a thin layer of soil, producing only shrubs and stunted trees; it has neither inhabitants nor fresh water. Chowry is a singular little island, not above two miles in circuit, and scarcely raised above the level of the sea, except at one end, where is a perpendicular rock, towering above the cocoa-nut and other fruit trees that cover the low land: the islanders breed abundance of hogs.

Teressa is four leagues long and one and a half broad, elevated at each end and low in the middle; it is inhabited. Off its S.E. end is Bompoka, a little mountain island, whose women are remarkable for being much fairer than the other Nicobarians. Tillanchong is about four leagues long and one broad, forming a high rugged mountain, and only inhabited by criminals driven from the other islands.

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Nicobar Islands.

Camorta is five leagues long and one broad; it is composed of two peninsulas, formed by a lagoon on the west. Among the trees with which it is covered is the poon, used in India for masts. It has some very fruitful spots, but is thinly inhabited, and water, which is procured from wells, is scarce in the dry season.

Trincutte is a low level island, close to the east side of Camorta; it is entirely covered with the cocoa and areca palm.

Nancowry Island, off the south end of Camorta, is four miles in circuit, rugged and uneven, abounding in limestone, thickly wooded, and with few inhabitants. The channel between this island and Camorta forms the harbour of Nancowry, capable of sheltering a large fleet from all winds. The Danes hoist a flag here, but three or four Moravian missionaries are the only Europeans; and as we have before noticed, their mission is by no means successful.

Katchall, or Tillanchool Island, is nine leagues in circuit, moderately elevated, and covered with wood. Meroe, or Passage Island, is small and low, three leagues N.W. of the Little Nicobar. The two southernmost islands are called the Little and Great Nicobars or Sambilanga. The Little Nicobar is four leagues long and two broad, moderately elevated; its inhabitants are more shy than the other islanders, seldom visiting passing ships. The strait between the Little and Great Nicobar is named St. George's channel, and is three miles broad,

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broad, but the bottom is foul, and the current sets strong through it; whence ships prefer the Sombrero channel, between Nancowry and Meroe. Nicobar Islands.

Great Nicobar, the southernmost island, is the largest, being ten leagues long and four to five broad, and so elevated as to be seen twelve leagues; it is less known than the other island, being out of the usual track of ships to or from the strait of Malacca.

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MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

SUMATRA.

Sumatra. THE Island of Sumatra appears to have been vaguely known to the ancients under the name of *Jaba-Diu*, or Isle of Barley. It was known to the Arabs by the name of *Lamary* and *Saborma*. Marc Paul notices some of its kingdoms, and calls it *Little Java*, Borneo being his *Great Java*. According to Marsden, the natives have no general name for this land, nor do those of the interior know it to be an island.

The Island of Sumatra is separated from the Malay peninsula by the Strait of Malacca. Its extent from Achen Head on the N.W. to Hog Point on the S.E. is 916 miles, and its medium breadth 180, being cut by the equator nearly in the middle, extending to 5° 20′ N. of that line, and to 5° 53′ S.

A chain of mountains, sometimes double, sometimes treble, runs through its whole length from N.W. to S.E. On the west side, this chain approaches much nearer to the sea than on the east, the low land to its foot being no where more than twelve miles broad on the former. The highest summit, named Mount Ophir by the Europeans, is directly under the line, and is

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is 13,842 feet above the level of the sea. Many of the mountains contain volcanoes which burn from time to time. Earthquakes, the usual effects of such internal fires, are often felt, and hot springs are common in the neighbourhood of the volcanoes. These springs, in their quality, resemble those of Harrowgate. Sumatra.

Between the ridges of the mountains are immense plains, much elevated above the sea, and where the cold is sensibly felt. These are the most cultivated and best inhabited parts of the island, the mountains and low lands being for the most part covered with impenetrable forests.

The island contains many lakes, from whence issue numerous rivers and rivulets, rendering this one of the best watered countries in the world. The rivers on the west coast are, however, from the shortness of their course, too small and too rapid for navigation; besides, this coast being entirely exposed to the fury of the ocean, the surf on it is terrible, and throws up banks of sand before the mouths of the rivers, which render them inaccessible to any other vessel than long boats. On the east coast, on the contrary, the mountains being farther inland, the rivers have a longer course over a plain surface, and consequently carry more water, and with a gentler current to the sea: besides, this side of the island being sheltered by the Malay peninsula, the mouths of the rivers are more free from banks, and capable of admitting large vessels.

The

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Sumatra. The climate of Sumatra is more temperate than that of many countries farther from the equator, the thermometer seldom rising, in the shade, above 85°, and at sun rise it is commonly at 70°. In the elevated plains, the degree of cold is sufficient to require fires in the morning. Before sun-rise, the mountains are enveloped in a fog of such density, that its extremities may almost be defined by the touch, and it is seldom dissipated till three hours after sun-rise.

Thunder and lightning are so common as almost to be perpetual, particularly during the west monsoon, when the lightning darting from every point of the horizon, seems to set the heavens in a blaze, while the thunder agitates the earth with a motion similar to that caused by an earthquake. In the S.E. monsoon, the flashes are longer, but not so frequent, and the thunder only growls in the atmosphere.

The soil is generally a reddish argillaceous earth, covered by a thin layer of vegetable mould, and when left a year without cultivation it is covered with brushwood. On the west side of the island are large tracks of marsh, formed by the overflowing of the rivers in the west monsoon.

The mineral productions of Sumatra are gold, copper, block-tin, iron, coal, sulphur, ochres of several colours, and petroleum.

No country in the world can boast a richer catalogue of vegetable productions than this island; of

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of these the pepper plant first deserves notice, as supplying by far the greatest portion of the export trade. The camphor tree also affords a considerable commercial object; it is only found on the north side of the island, where it grows without cultivation to the size of the largest forest tree. To procure the camphor, the tree is cut down and split in small pieces, and the camphor is found in little cavities in a christalized form; this is called native camphor, and is sold on the spot for six dollars the pound. It is entirely exported to China, where it produces a profit of cent per cent. Sumatra

There is also a tree at Sumatra which produces a liquid camphor, used as a remedy in sprains and swellings. It is procured by making a transverse incision on the tree, and digging out the wood till a hole is formed capable of holding a quart, into this a bit of lighted wood is put, and the heat drawing down the fluid, the hole is filled in a night. In the same manner is extracted another liquid rosin, named wood oil, which is used to preserve timber exposed to the air. The tree which produces the gum-benjamin grows in the north part of the island, and the gum is procured by making incisions in the bark, from which it distils.

The cassia, a well known species of coarse cinnamon, grows in abundance and without culture on the north side of the island. The rattan furnishes considerable cargoes, chiefly for China, where it is manufactured into household furniture; the

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Sumatra. the fruit of the rattan, which grows in bunches, is eaten by the Malays.

The island produces cotton, but the cultivation of it is confined to a sufficient quantity for domestic consumption. The silk cotton also grows here but its fibre is too short and brittle to bear spinning, and it is only used to stuff mattrasses. The areca, or betel-nut, is a considerable article of export to the coast of Coromandel. The coffee plant grows in all parts of the island, but though the same species as that of Arabia, the berry is much inferior, probably from the want of care, or from the constant humidity of the climate.

Dammer is a kind of resin or turpentine, which exudes abundantly from a large tree; it is exported to India, where it is used instead of pitch in the dock yards. There is also a tree which produces a gum resembling gum arabic, and another like gum lack, but they are neglected. The forests also contain a variety of timber trees, which would be a source of wealth to a more industrious people: such are the ebony, a species of sassafras, sandal and aloes wood, teak, iron wood, and the manchineel, the wood of which resists the ravages of the white ants.

Besides the vegetable productions which enter into commerce, Sumatra possesses all the fruits of the tropics, together with many peculiar to the Malay archipelago. The *mangostine* is considered by Europeans the most delicious fruit in the world: it is the size of a middling apple, and contains within a hard rind several kernels surrounded

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surrounded by a pulpy melting substance full of juice, and it may be eaten even immoderately without danger, an advantage few other tropical fruits possess. Sumatra.

The *durian* is the favourite fruit of the Malays, being a powerful aphrodisaic. It grows on a large tree and is sometimes the size of a man's head; its internal substance may with correctness be compared to a custard mixed with assafœtida, consequently it is not a fruit much relished by Europeans. The *jack* has a resemblance to the durian internally: it contains a number of kernels surrounded by a fleshy substance, the smell and taste of which convey the idea of onions mixed with honey.

The *bread fruit* is a favourite of the Malays, and is eaten in slices boiled or roasted with sugar: the taste of this fruit is insipid, something resembling that of an artichoke bottom. The *billingbing* is an extremely acid fruit, in taste resembling the green gooseberry. The *lansia* a small fruit of a pulpy substance and agreeable taste. The *brangan* resembles the chesnut, the *cameling* the walnut, and the *kattapping* the almond. The *karembola* is a fruit resembling the billingbing, but much less acid. The *sala* is the shape and size of the fig, containing an asidulous pulp of a fine perfume. The *jamboo* resembles the pear in shape, and contains a white fleshy substance which has the odour of the rose. The *carossol* is a mealy fruit the size of a pear. The *rhambootan* externally resembles

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Sumatra. bles the fruit of the arbutus; it contains an acid but very agreeable pulp.

These are but a few of the most celebrated fruits of the Malay archipelago, which is said to produce 300 species, from the jack weighing 50 lb. to the berry. Nor is it to fruits alone that nature has confined her bounty in the vegetable reign, she has in these islands perfumed the atmosphere with innumerable flowers in an unceasing succession, and which are carefully cultivated, the Malays being passionately fond of them; particularly the women, of whose dress they form the greatest ornament.

Rice forms the chief vegetable food of the Malays, and consequently its cultivation is most attended to. It is of two kinds, named from the places of its growth, the mountain and swamp rice; the former being the best, but gives a less return. The Malays have a name to distinguish this grain in its different states; thus the seed is named *paddy*, the grain husked as we receive it, *bros*, and boiled *nassy*.

Next to rice the cocoa-palm is the principal object of cultivation, though it is not employed in the various uses as in India, the Sumatrans possessing substitutes which are not found there. Its pulp enters into the composition of all their dishes, and its consumption is immense; they also extract its oil to anoint themselves, and drink the *toddy*, and make brooms of its leaves.

The sago-palm of two kinds is also cultivated, though

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though it does not here make any considerable part of their food any more than maize, which is only eaten roasted while green. Sumatra.

The betel-nut and leaf form a considerable article of cultivation as well for export as for home consumption. Tobacco is also raised in small quantities, but they have no method of preparing it. They likewise cultivate the sugar-cane, and boil its juice into a thick syrup, but their sugar, or jagree, is chiefly made from the toddy of the cocoa and sago-palms. In their gardens are always found abundance of Cayenne pepper and turmeric for their currys, yams, sweet potatoes, French beans, and *brinjalls*. The coriander and cardamum, as well as the palma christi, grow wild. The mulberry tree is reared for the raising silk-worms, and a large quantity of hemp is produced, not to manufacture but to smoke: it is named *Bang* and has an inebriating quality. A number of medicinal plants are also cultivated.

The domestic animals are the horse, cow, buffalo, sheep, goat, hog, dog, and cat. The horses are very small but extremely hardy and fiery: they are esteemed in the English settlements in India, as Shetland ponies are in London, and are chiefly exported from Achen. The cows and sheep are both very small races. The buffalo is the only beast employed in labour, and is used in the cart and plough: though naturally lazy and obstinate, it becomes docile by habit, and is led with no other bridle than a thong through the nostril,

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Sumatra. nostril; it is however so delicate as to be incapable of bearing the least extraordinary fatigue. The milk of the buffalo furnishes the greater part of the butter used by Europeans here, as well as on the continent of India.

The wild animals are elephants which over-run the country, herding in large troops and doing great damage, destroying even the traces of cultivation by barely walking over the fields. Young plantain trees and sugar-canes are their favourite food, and their passion for the latter is often made the means of their destruction, by introducing poison into the crevices of the canes. The natives do not attempt to domesticate them.

The rhinoceros is also a native of Sumatra, and his horn is greatly sought after as a supposed antidote against poisons.

The tiger is the king of the Sumatra forests, and pushes his sanguinary devastation even to the villages, the inhabitants of which he often carries off in the open day. From a superstitious idea that these animals are animated by the souls of their ancestors, the Malays hesitate to kill them until they have suffered a personal injury from them; when they wage every kind of war against them by traps, snares, &c. and the European factors give a considerable reward for their destruction in their vicinity. The other wild animals are small black bears, the otter, sloth, stinkard, porcupine, armadillo, wild hog, deer, particularly the little animal called the hog deer, and which is one of those that furnish the bezoar, the

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the monkey of many species, the pole cat, tiger cat, and civet, squirrel, rat, mouse, and bats of a very large size, having a head something resembling a fox, whence they are called flying foxes (*draco volans*). Sumatra.

The hippopotamus is found in the marshes, and the rivers are infested with alligators; and though they daily destroy the natives while bathing, the frequency of these accidents does not make them more cautious. This animal is also held in a kind of religious respect, which prevents their destroying them.

Among the long list of birds observed at this island, the Sumatran pheasant surpasses even the bird of paradise in plumage, but it is impossible to keep it alive for any time. The common pheasant is also plenty, as are swans, two or three kinds of pigeons, parrots, and parroquets, innumerable and of every species, particularly cockatoos, kite, crow, plover, snipe, quail, wild-duck, teal, water hen, wood hen, much larger than the domestic, lark, sea-lark, curlew, paddy bird the size of the sparrow and equally injurious to the grain, the dial bird, the minor the size of the black bird, which imitates the human voice with more accuracy than any other bird. The owl, the starling, swallow, king's fisher, the rhinoceros bird, so named from an excrescence projecting from the root of its bill; and, finally, the common domestic fowl, one species of which has black bones, and is much esteemed for its superior delicacy. The island does not produce

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Surgana. a single singing bird. The only birds the natives attempt to take are plovers and quails, and this they do by nets placed on the ground, over which they drive the birds, whose feet get entangled in the meshes.

The most common reptile is the lizard, which may be said to form a continued chain from the immense and voracious alligator to the little house lizard, half an inch in length. The *guana*, the ugliest animal in nature, and which probably gave the first idea of the dragon of fable, is found here of an enormous size, but is entirely harmless, and its flesh is said to be equal to that of a chicken. The marshes are full of frogs and toads, which form the chief food of the snakes: the latter are as numerous as the lizard tribe, and of all sizes, from fifteen feet long downwards; few of them, however, seem to be venomous.

In no part of the world is there a greater variety of insects; amongst which the ants form the most conspicuous tribe. They are, the destructive white ant, the great red, three quarters of an inch long, the common red ant or pismire, the great white ant, and the common and small black ant.

The coasts offer an immense quantity of excellent fish, which constitutes a large portion of the food of the natives. Besides the common method of taking them, they throw into the sea the root of a plant, which has a strong narcotic quality, and produces the appearance of death upon the fish, which float on the surface, and are taken out with the hand.

There

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There are few collections of houses in the island that deserve the name of towns. The villages are always situated on the banks of a river or lake, for the advantage of bathing and transporting their goods: they are generally on an elevated spot, surrounded with fruit trees, and forming a square, with a large public place of assembly in the middle. The houses are raised on posts, six or eight feet from the ground, and are entirely constructed of the bamboo; the sides or walls being of large bamboos, split down one side and pressed flat; the floor of large ones whole, as rafters, placed close together, and covered with laths of the same, two inches wide, over which are placed mats. The covering is usually of palm leaves, and the ascent by a single large bamboo, with notches cut in it to admit the toes. Sumatra.

The Sumatrans are below the middle size, with small limbs, but well proportioned. In infancy their noses are flattened, their heads compressed, and their ears pulled till they stick straight out from the head. Their eyes are black and lively, and strikingly resemble those of the Chinese: their hair is long, thick, and very black; the men cut it short, but the women allow it to grow to their feet. Both sexes eradicate the hair from every part of the body but the head; and the neglecting to do so is considered as an unpardonable want of delicacy: this is performed by rubbing the parts, when the hairs first begin to appear, with quick lime, which destroys the roots, and the little that escapes and from time to time makes

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Sumatra. its appearance, is carefully plucked out with tweazers, which they always carry about them for the purpose. Their colour is a copper, deeper or lighter according to their exposure to the sun and their vicinity to the sea. Many of the women are not darker than the female peasants of the south of Europe, but they are disgustingly ugly.

The original clothing of the Sumatrans was composed of the bark of a tree beat to a certain fineness, as is still practised in the South Sea Islands; at present, however, they have universally adopted the use of cotton. The *criss*, which is their principal weapon, and which they never, even when sleeping, lay aside, is a poignard, the blade fourteen inches long, not straight, nor yet regularly curved, but in an undulating line, which renders the wound made by it very dangerous. The handle is of ivory, or of hard wood, inlaid with gold or other metal, and represents nearly the Egyptian Isis. The value of these weapons is in proportion to the number of persons they have killed; but the custom of poisoning them, common formerly, is now unknown.

Unmarried girls are distinguished by a fillet half an inch broad, of gold plates, which surrounds the head, and by bracelets of gold and silver on the wrists. Children of both sexes wear small silver money, strung on threads, hung round their necks; and girls, before they are considered old enough to be clothed, wear a silver plate, in the shape of a heart, hung to a silver chain, round the neck, so that the plate hangs down before. The women

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women have a high opinion of the efficacy of morning dew as a cosmetic, and particularly as increasing their hair; hence they collect it with great care before sun-rise. Sumatra.

Both sexes have the custom of grinding their teeth with a kind of whetstone, some entirely down to the gums, others only to a point, and others again content themselves with getting rid of the enamel; they then stain them a jet black with the empyreumatic oil of the cocoa-nut shell.

The men sometimes insert a gold plate over the lower teeth, or wind gold wire round them. At the age of eight or nine the girls' ears are pierced; a ceremony which necessarily precedes marriage, and which, as well as that of grinding the teeth, is usually accompanied by a feast. Persons of rank let their nails grow to an enormous length, particularly those of the index and little finger, and sometimes stain them red.

In the arts and sciences the Sumatrans have made but little progress, and, indeed, their natural indolence seems to be an insuperable bar to their improvements. Their greatest ingenuity is shewn in the making fillagree work of gold and silver, which they do with astonishing elegance, and with the rudest tools; their principal being usually a piece of iron hoop, which they form into an instrument to draw out the wire. Their compasses are two nails attached together at the heads; their crucible a piece of an old earthen-pot; and their bellows a hollow reed, which they blow through. Their manufacture of iron is confined to the

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simplest instruments of husbandry and carpenters' tools, nor have they arrived at the use of the saw; hence their works in wood are very clumsy and very tedious. Their glue is composed of the curds of buffaloes' milk and quick lime, and is much stronger, and less affected by humidity than our glue.

Their ropes are made of a vegetable substance, named *ejoo*, which envelopes the trunk of a species of the sago palm, and exactly resembles horsehair. They draw thread from a species of the nettle and several other vegetables.

They manufacture silk and cotton cloth, which they die with colours extracted from vegetables. Their oil is procured by expression from the pulp of the cocoa-nut; their candles or torches are small bamboos filled with dammer. They manufacture gunpowder, but of an inferior quality; and their jagree, or sugar, is the juice of the sago-palm, boiled to a consistency and formed into cakes. Their method of making salt is extremely imperfect; they light a large fire on the sea beach, and sprinkle it continually with sea water, the aqueous parts of which escaping in vapour, the salt is precipitated among the ashes, which is collected in close baskets; sea water is poured over it till all the particles of salt are separated and fall with the water into a vessel placed beneath the basket: the water, thus impregnated, is boiled until the salt forms chrystals on the bottom and sides of the vessel. They are entirely ignorant of painting or designing, and the little sculpture seen among them

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them is grotesque and without meaning. In the manufacture of mats and baskets they are neat and expert. Sumatra.

The arithmetical knowledge of the Sumatrans extends no farther than the multiplication or division of any number under 10,000, by a single cypher. They have no word to express any number above 10,000; and in their trading accounts they assist memory by knots formed on a cord.

Their division of time is into the lunar year of 354 days, or twelve lunar months of twenty-nine days and a half each; their more usual method of computing time is, however, by their rice harvests. Their months are not divided into weeks; but when they want to specify a particular day, they do it by the age of the moon on that day. The hour of the day they make known by pointing to the sun's situation at that time: and this is subject to little error, as the sun pursues his course in an unvarying line.

Their knowledge of astronomy is confined to calculating the moon's phases, and they salute the new moon with a discharge of cannon, whether visible or not. Venus they do not know to be the same planet, when it precedes or follows the sun. During an eclipse they make a horrible noise on sonorous instruments, as they say, to prevent one of the luminaries being devoured by the other. The dark appearance in the moon they suppose to be a man continually employed spinning cotton, which a rat each night knaws, and thus obliges him to recommence his work. By

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Sumatra. this metaphor they also describe a continual and useless labour.

They have neither written history nor chronology; and the memory of events is only preserved by tradition, and the time of their arrival, by assimilating them to some memorable circumstance which happened at or near the same time.

Their knowledge of medicine is confined to the virtues of a few simples, which every one is acquainted with, and, consequently, is his own physician.

The Sumatrans are subject to two kinds of leprosy; the first is the true elephantiasis, the other, though very disgusting, is not a dangerous malady. Those afflicted with the former are instantly driven from their village into the woods, where their relations supply them with food. The small-pox occasionally commits terrible ravages, as they have no idea of inoculation. The venereal is common on the coast, but unknown in the interior; it is cured by a plant that produces salivation. They have a curious method of attempting to cure madness: the patient is put into a hut, which is set fire to, and he is allowed to make his escape as he can. The fright, it is said, sometimes restores his reason. The inhabitants of the high grounds are subject to goitres, probably occasioned by the grossness of the atmosphere in the vallies between the mountains.

The extent of human life amongst the Sumatrans it is impossible correctly to ascertain, for their total want of chronology prevents any one of

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of them from being able to tell his age. It, however, seems probable, that fifty years is the general period of existence, and that sixty is a degree of uncommon longevity. Sumatra.

The Sumatrans are passionately fond of music, particularly that produced by sonorous instruments; they have the *gong* of the Chinese, drums, &c. Their wind instrument is an imperfect flute, and they have acquired the knowledge of the violin from Europeans.

The Malay language may be called the Italian of the east, being full of vowels and liquid consonants; it is consequently highly adapted to poetry, of which the Malays are so immoderately fond, that three-fourths of their time is passed in singing.

Their songs are chiefly figurative expressions and proverbs applied to the passing events, or love songs, either composed deliberately or impromptu.

The following are stanzas of a love song of the first kind.

Apo goono passang paleeto
Callo teeda dangan soombonia?
Apo goono bermino matto
Callo teeda dangan soogania?

Why light a lamp without a wick?
Why make love with the eyes if there is no intention to be serious?

The following is a favourite couplet of the young men.

Inchy

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Sumatra.

Inchy piggy mandi, dekkat tanle sangy
Sciow mow be jago, sciow mow be anty.
When my love slides into the water (to bathe)
I will remain at a distance to guard her.

The common conversation is sententious and figurative; thus, if a girl has a child before marriage, they say, "the fruit has come before the flower:" speaking of the death of a person, it is, "those that are dead are dead, those that remain must work; or, his time was come, what could he do?"

The Malays use the Arabic character in writing, but some of the Sumatrans have a distinct character. The former use China paper and an ink of their own composition, but the latter write, or rather mark, with a pointed instrument on the bark of a tree or on split bamboos.

Though the government and laws among the different tribes vary in some minute points, they have a sufficient resemblance to be brought under a general description. Their rajahs, sultans, or chiefs of whatever denomination are absolute *de juro*, but in fact their power is limited by their wanting revenues to keep on foot a standing force to support their arbitrary authority. The villages are internally governed by an elective magistrate, who is a kind of bulwark against the encroachments of the sovereign on the rights of the people.

The laws of the Sumatrans are founded on ancient customs handed down by tradition. All causes of property are usually decided by a kind of arbitration, each party binding itself to abide by the decision of the judges. All crimes, of whatever

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whatever nature, may be commuted by fines: that for murder is in proportion to the quality of the person murdered, from 500 dollars, to eighty for the commonest person; but for a woman or girl of the lowest class the fine is 150. The man who murders his wife is only subject to the fine, but the woman who kills her husband is punished with death. The fine for a rape is twenty dollars, for perjury twenty dollars and a buffalo; for theft twice the value of the article stolen, together with twenty dollars and a buffalo. If a man takes his wife in adultery he may kill both parties, but if he prosecutes the man the fine is fifty dollars, and he must cease all other revenge. Sumatra.

There are three kinds of marriages amongst the Sumatrans; by Joojoor, by Ambelana, and by Semundo. The first is the mere purchase of a girl from her father, and she is in a great measure the slave of her husband, who can sell her at pleasure, with the precaution of making the first offer to her relations. The price is limited to 120 dollars, but may be decreased according to circumstances; thus the price of a widow once married is but eighty dollars, twice married but sixty dollars, and so goes on diminishing every time she loses a husband and is disposed of to a fresh one. A widow with children cannot be married again till they are provided for. If a widow is left pregnant she may be disposed of again immediately, but otherwise she must wait three months and ten days.

In the marriage by Ambelana, it is the husband who becomes the slave to the wife's family, instead

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Sumatra. stead of the wife to the husband's; in this case the girl's father makes choice of a young man usually of inferior family, who transfer all their right in their son to the family he enters. In this marriage the husband can have no property of his own, not even in his children, and he can be turned off at the pleasure of his wife's family.

The third kind of marriage by Semundo, is contracted on the basis of perfect equality; the contract declaring that all property is in common, and in case of a divorce shall be equally divided. This kind of marriage, which is more consonant to reason and more productive of conjugal felicity is prevailing over the others, and is strongly recommended by the English residents.

The marriage ceremony consists simply in joining hands and declaring the parties man and wife; then succeeds a feast in the public assembly room, and the evening is closed with dances and songs, often extremely licentious.

A man is allowed to have as many wives by Joojoor, as he can purchase or support, but in general poverty confines him to one.

The woman married by Ambelana has not a similar privilege; nor can it take place in the marriage by Semundo, as the property could not in that case be equally divided.

Female chastity is very closely guarded in Sumatra, for it is so much the interest of the fathers to preserve the virtue of their daughters, that they pay peculiar attention to their conduct before marriage: nevertheless it sometimes happens that the daughter's

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daughter's wit exceeds the father's prudence; and in this case the favoured lover is either obliged to marry the girl by Joojoor, or if the father prefers keeping her he is punished by a fine, and the diminished value of the girl is thus made up to the father. Sumatra.

In the interior venal prostitution is unknown, on the coasts it is as common as in our own seaports. Adultery is not frequent, and when it is discovered the offended party usually takes a personal vengeance, or else sinks it in oblivion, instead of proclaiming his injury by having recourse to the law.

The ceremony of divorce is as simple as that of marriage, and consists in cutting a piece of rattan in two, in the presence of the parties, their relations and some of the chiefs. The women of Sumatra are not prolific, and few are mothers of five children: these latter soon voluntarily leave off the breast, and as their growth is not impeded by any kind of clothing, a deformed person is scarcely to be seen. The child on its birth receives a name from its parents to which it afterwards adds another, which is generally a sounding epithet, such as Shaker of the World, &c. In some parts the father takes the name of his son, with the addition of Pa (abreviation of Papa, father) as "father of such a one;" it is also considered polite to address a married woman by the name of her eldest son with the addition of Ma (mother). The Sumatrans make it a rule never to pronounce their own name, from

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Sumatra. from what cause is unknown, and when a stranger ignorant of this enquires it of them, they refer him to another person. In speaking to a superior they, as in French, use the third person instead of the second, and substitute the name or title of the person spoken to instead of the pronoun: as, what does the gentleman wish? instead of what do you wish, sir?

Gaming is passionately followed by the Sumatrans, and their favourite play is with dice; the use of which is, however, strictly forbidden where the English influence is preponderant.

Cock fighting is also a favourite amusement of the Malays, and is carried to such lengths, that daughters, wives, sisters, and mothers, are often staked on a favourite bird: quails are also trained to fight. The athletic amusements are very few, being confined to a kind of war dance, in which they throw themselves into violent contortions, and to striking an elastic ball from one to another with their hands, elbows, knees, feet, &c. in which they shew great dexterity.

The Sumatrans, in common with most of the eastern nations, continually chew the betel. When two acquaintances meet they first salute, which, if they are equals, is by gently inclining the body fowards; but if there is a difference of rank, the inferior puts his joined hands between those of the superior, and then raises them to his forehead. The betel is then presented as we offer snuff, and the omission of this politeness between equals is considered

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considered a gross affront, as it also is for an inferior to speak to his superior before he has filled his mouth with it. Sumatra.

It is also in betel that the young men present philtres or love potions to their mistresses, and as these are usually composed of stimulating drugs, they of course have at times the desired effect. Tobacco is smoked, rolled up in the leaf of the palm tree.

The usage of opium is universal amongst the Sumatrans; it is boiled in a copper vessel, strained through a cloth, boiled again, and mixed with a certain leaf cut small until it is of a sufficient consistence, when it is rolled up in pills the size of a pea; one of them is put into a tube inserted into the extremity of a pipe, which being lighted, the opium pill is consumed at one inspiration. The smoke is passed by the nose, or even by the eyes and ears, but never by the mouth. When indulged in to excess, this custom produces paroxysms of phrenzy, in which the person thus affected runs through the streets and with his *criss* indiscriminately kills every person he meets with, till at length he is killed himself; this is called *running a muck*, and where the English influence prevails the guards have orders to do instant execution on the culprit.

Among those who have adopted Mahometanism the children are circumcised between the ages of six and ten; this is called *banishing shame*, and is followed by a feast.

The last offices for the dead are performed with much solemnity. The body is conveyed to the place

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Sumatra. place of interment on a board which serves for a whole village, it is there rubbed over with glue, and enveloped in a white cloth: a hole of a certain size and depth is then dug, and at the bottom and on one side of it the earth is excavated so as to form a cavity sufficiently large to hold the body; this being strewed with fresh flowers the body is placed in it, and it is closed by two planks united together by their edges at right angles, so that one of the planks goes over the body, and the other closes the cavity on the open side; the grave is then filled, and little streamers and flags stuck round it, a tree sacred to this purpose, bearing a white flower, is planted on it, and also the wild marjoram. The women who follow the body to the grave express their sorrow in a dismal howl. At the end of twelve months the relations place at the head and foot of the grave some long elliptical stones, which being scarce are very dear, and at the same time kill a buffalo and give a feast, the head of the animal being placed on the grave. The burying grounds are held in such veneration, that it is deemed sacrilege to violate the earth of them even where there is no appearance of a grave.

The tribes who have not adopted Mahometanism have no form of worship whatever, nor do they appear to have a very correct notion of a future state; they have nevertheless confused ideas of supernatural beings, whom they suppose can at will render themselves invisible, and hence they call them *orang aloos*, or imperceptible men;

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men; they divide them into good and evil genii, Sumatra.
the former they distinguish by the name of *Malay cat*, and the latter by that of *Sisin*. As these are the names by which the Arabs call their good and evil spirits, it is probable the Sumatrans have thence borrowed both them and the idea itself.

Some tribes believe that old trees are the habitations of spirits, and therefore hold them in great veneration, particularly the banyan tree. The inhabitants of the interior make an offering to the sea when they see it for the first time in order to propitiate it; they believe it to possess a voluntary power of motion, and one of them has been known to carry a vessel full of the sea water into the interior with him, and pour it into a lake, supposing it would impart this virtue to its tranquil waters. They believe that certain persons are invulnerable, and that they can impart this property to inanimate things, such as a ship, &c.

Towards the north end of the island is a tribe named Battas, differing so much from the rest of the islanders as to deserve a particular mention.

Their dress consists of a coarse cotton garment of their own manufacture, with a hat of the bark of a tree: they are passionately fond of strings of beads, and the young women wear rings of block tin in their ears, sometimes to the number of fifty in each.

They consider horse flesh a great luxury, and fatten those animals for slaughter. The houses are constructed of large timber and covered with

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Sumatra. ejoo, and consist only of one great apartment, entered by a door in the centre. In the front of every house is an open building, or shed, where they repose during the day, and where the unmarried men pass the night. Each village, which seldom consists of more than forty houses, has a large public assembly room, in which their feasts are held and strangers received, who are here treated with great hospitality.

Every man may marry as many wives as he pleases, and six is no uncommon number; all of whom live in a large apartment, or house, without screen or partition: nevertheless each has a separate fireplace and cooking utensils, and prepares her own victuals, and her husband's in her turn. When a man feels a *penchant* for a girl, he makes it known to her father, and if the latter agrees to receive him as a son-in-law, the girl, stripped naked, enters a bath, in which the lover is permitted to examine her; and if he finds her *comme il faut*, the price he is to pay her father is agreed upon. The women are here, indeed, less considered than among the other Sumatrans, being not only employed in domestic drudgery, but also obliged to cultivate the rice; while the husbands pass whole days in playing the flute crowned with garlands of flowers.

As well as the other tribes the Battas are much addicted to gambling; but here, when a man has lost more than he can pay, his creditors seize and sell him for a slave, and in this manner most

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most of the native slaves have become so. Their favourite amusement is horse-racing: they ride without a saddle, and with bridles of rattan. Sumatra.

The language and written characters of the Battas differ from the Malay, and a much greater number of the former know how to read and write. They are strictly honest in their dealings with each other, but make no scruple in cheating a stranger, when they are not restrained by the laws of hospitality, which they strictly observe.

A man convicted of adultery is punished with death, while the woman is only shaved and sold for a slave; but in this case, as well as in all others, the man may redeem his life by paying a fine, which, for the crime of adultery, is eighty dollars.

The Battas are cannibals, not from the necessity of eating human flesh in times of famine, nor from considering it as delicate food; on the contrary, they eat it as a kind of ceremonial, to prove the detestation they have for certain crimes, or to satisfy their vengeance against their enemies, the victims served up at these horrible repasts being either condemned criminals or prisoners taken in war; the former, however, are never sacrificed, unless their friends refuse or are unable to redeem them, and the prisoners of war may be either ransomed or exchanged.

The slightest provocation rouses the military order of the Battas, and they are instantly in arms. They first give notice to the enemy of their discontent by firing muskets with powder only

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Sumatra. over their houses, by which it is understood that they give them three days to propose terms of accommodation; at the expiration of which, if no terms are proposed, or not agreed to, war is commenced. Their wars sometimes last two or three years, for they never come to a decisive engagement, nor openly attack a village, but endeavour to surprize straggling parties. Three or four conceal themselves near the road where the enemy is expected to pass, and when they see one approach they fire at him, and instantly take to their heels, without waiting to ascertain the effect.

Their villages are fortified by clay walls, on the top of which they plant bushes. Outside of this wall is a ditch, with a range of pallisades at each side; and without the ditch an impenetrable hedge of living bamboos and prickly shrubs, and outside of all, the ground is stuck full of pointed bamboos concealed by the grass. At each angle of this fortification a high tree is planted, which serves as a look-out post.

Their military standard is a horse's head or tail, and their arms the matchlock, a bamboo spear, and a kind of sword or long knife, never using the *criss*. They are also supplied with pointed bamboos of different sizes, which, when retreating, they stick in the ground behind them, to retard a pursuit by wounding the enemy's feet.

Having no money all valuation is by certain merchandizes; thus in trade, with strangers, they calculate by cakes of benjamin, and in the home trade

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trade by buffaloes, corn, &c. and by salt in small transactions, two pounds of it being equal to two-pence half-penny. Sumatra.

They have little more idea of religion than the other tribes who have not embraced Mahometanism, but they believe in a beneficent and maleficent being, to neither of whom however they render any worship, nor do they appear to have any hopes or fears respecting a future state. They have priests, whose business it is to bury the dead, and predict fortunate or unfortunate days, which they observe scrupulously. The priests also predict the event of their wars by the examination of the entrails of an animal (a buffalo or fowl entirely white), which is sacrificed previous to commencing hostilities. This is, however, a dangerous office for the priest, for, if the event contradicts his prediction, he is inevitably put to death for his ignorance.

The Lampoons, who inhabit the eastern extremity of the island, differ from the other races in their features, nearly resembling the Chinese, and speak a gutteral dialect.

In the interior of the island are two tribes, named *Orang Cooboo* and *Orang Googoo;* the first are sometimes taken and made slaves of by the Sumatrans. Of their manners we have no other knowledge than that they feed on whatever the woods afford, eating indifferently elephants, rhinoceros, snakes, or monkeys, and that their language differs entirely from that of the other islanders. The Orang Googoo is said to differ

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Sumatra. from the Orang Ootang only in the gift of speech, being, like that animal, covered with long hair.

Both these races are in very small numbers, and indeed the existence of the latter is not guaranteed to his readers by Mr. Marsden, but given merely on the testimony of some of the Sumatrans, who affirm that they have occasionally met straggling individuals of this race.

By the original treaties between the native princes and the English, the former bound themselves to oblige all their subjects to cultivate pepper and sell it to the English at a fixed price; while the latter were in return to maintain the chiefs in their full sovereignty, and to pay them a small duty on the pepper they received from their territories. Both the letter and the spirit of these treaties have, however, long become obsolete, and the English are the real sovereigns of the districts over which their influence extends. This usurpation has, however, been certainly productive of much benefit to the natives in general. The English residents are the mediators between the chiefs and the people, hence the districts under their influence enjoy uninterrupted tranquillity, while the surrounding tribes are ever at war; and in the English districts private quarrels seldom produce those murders which are their invariable consequences in the other parts of the island. "I protest to you, in truth," said a chief, irritated against a person and addressing a British Resident, "that you alone prevented me from plunging this criss into his bosom."

The

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The town of Achen is the capital of a kingdom of the same name, which formerly held the first rank amongst those of Sumatra. It is situated two miles up a river, which falls into a bay five leagues N.E. of Achen Head, the N.W. point of the island. The river is small, and a bar crosses it, which closes it against any vessels larger than boats at low water, but at high water vessels of thirty tons enter it. The anchorage is safe in the bay or road two miles from the river's mouth. Sumatra.

The description given of the town of Achen, as it appeared to the author of *Lettres Edifiantes* in 1698, though a little overcharged for its present state, is sufficiently accurate to give a just idea of it. "Imagine to yourself," says the author, "a forest of palm trees, plantains, and bamboos, through which runs a fine river covered with boats; place in the forest an incredible number of houses, constructed of cane, reeds, or bark; dispose them so as to form sometimes streets, sometimes detached quarters; interpose these quarters and streets with fields and groves, and people this forest with as many inhabitants as we see in one of our populous cities, and you will form a just idea of Achen. It appears like a landscape formed by the imagination of the painter or the poet, in which are combined all the most smiling features of the country; all is negligent, natural, and even a little savage. From the road the town is not perceived, being concealed behind the thick wood that lines the coast."

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Sumatra.

The town of Achen has, however, nothing to recommend it, either on the score of beauty or magnificence. The palace of the sultan, which is the chief public building, is an irregular clumsy edifice, surrounded by thick walls, but without any other defence, except that at its gate are placed several pieces of brass ordnance of extraordinary size, chiefly presents from the Portuguese, and two presented by our James the First, one of which has a calibre of twenty-four inches and the other eighteen, but their thickness is not at all in proportion, nor does it appear that they have ever been fired out of. The number of houses at Achen are reckoned at 8,000.

Innumerable fishing boats quit the river with the land wind in the morning, and return with the sea breeze in the afternoon.

Six to ten chulia, or Coromandel native vessels, carry on the principal trade of Achen, arriving there in the month of August, and returning in February or March. The duties on importation form the whole revenue of the sultan, and may amount to between £1,500 and £3,000 annually, which barely enables him to keep a standing force of about 100 men.

The trading places which succeed to Achen on the west coast are Analaboo, in 4° 8′; Soosoo, in 3° 41′, both under the Achen government. Sinkel town is forty miles up the largest river of the coast, which however is crossed by a bar with but twelve feet high water; proas ascend it to the town. Before the river's mouth is a small island, affording

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affording a sheltered road within it. Baroos, in 1° 57′, in the country of the Battas, is two leagues up a river. Sumatra.

Tappanooly Bay, also in the country of the Battas, is described as possessing capacity and perfect security for all the navies in the world, being a great lagoon penetrating into the heart of the island, and forming such a labyrinth of harbours, that a ship may be so hid as not to be found without a tedious search. On a small island, named Ponchang Cacheel, is the English settlement of Tappanooly, consisting of an insignificant fort and factory.

Natal, also an English establishment, is of still less consequence, but is a considerable native trading place.

Priaman, formerly a Dutch settlement, is now occupied by the English, whose establishment consists only of a square space, pallisaded and encompassed by a ditch, with ten small guns, and is under the direction of a non-commissioned officer.

Padang, the chief establishment of the Dutch on the west coast of Sumatra, is a mile up a river, in 50° S. The fort is a square, with four stone bastions; the walls nine feet high, and encompassed by a wet ditch. The garrison is usually fifty men.

Ayer-rajah, also a Dutch settlement, in 1° 58′ S., is two miles up a river, crossed by a dangerous bar.

Moco-Moco, in 2° 36′, at the head of a bay, where

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Sumatra. where the English have a small fort. Landing is only practicable in the country canoes.

Bencoolen, or *Fort Marlborough*, the chief settlement of the English in Sumatra, is situated on an elevated point of land, in a bay, which affords tolerable anchorage within a small island. The native town of Bencoolen is three miles from the fort, and extremely unhealthy, from the neighbourhood of morasses. Besides Malays, it is inhabited by many Chinese.

The expense of this establishment considerably exceeding its revenue, without any counterbalancing advantage, either commercial or political, it was very considerably reduced in 1801, and from being a presidency, was placed under the immediate government of Bengal. The other trading places on the west coast, and where the English had residents, but which have been withdrawn, are,

Saloomah, in	4° 12′ S.	Manna	4° 25′ S.
Cawoor	4° 54′	Crooe	5° 13′

Off the west coast of Sumatra are several islands, the first of which that present themselves lie off Achen Head, and are named Pulo Way, high, and three leagues long, and the place of banishment for robbers from Achen, after they have suffered amputation of one arm; Pulo Rondo, a great high round rock; Pulo Brasse and Pulo Nancy, also high, and with several islets near them.

The

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The Cocos are two small islands, six leagues N.W. of Hog Island, or Pulo Babee, which latter is seventeen or eighteen leagues from the coast of Sumatra, and is fifteen leagues long, N.W. and S.E. and three to four broad. It is hilly, and may be seen eight leagues. It is covered with wood and inhabited, but is seldom visited by Europeans.

Pulo Banjak is a group of two islands, separated by a narrow strait, and several islets. The northernmost of the two principal islands rises in a sugar loaf mountain.

Pulo Neas is seventeen leagues long, and six to eight broad, being the largest island on this coast: it is high, has several rivers, and produces abundance of rice and yams: it also abounds in wild hogs and poultry. It is divided between a great number of rajahs, continually at war, for the purpose principally of making slaves, who are sold, to the number of 800 annually, to vessels from Sumatra. The natives appear to be of the Batta nation, and their females, being remarkable for the fairness of their complexions and the delicate symmetry of their forms, are sought for by the Dutch of Batavia.

Manslaer Island, before the Bay of Tappanooly, is well wooded and has a fine cascade, precipitating itself from the conical summit of a hill.

Pulo Mintao, or Nantian, is fourteen leagues long and five broad, has an undulating surface, covered with wood, and is well inhabited, but seldom visited by Europeans.

Se

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Sumatra. Se Booro Island is twenty-three leagues long, high, covered with wood, and with a great surf on the west coast. Se Pora is fourteen leagues long and seven broad; woody; its west side is uninhabited, but on the east side are three good bays, where hogs, yams, and cocoa-nuts, may be procured at some straggling villages. These two islands are the Good Fortune Island of the old charts.

The Nassau, or Two Poggy Islands, are separated by a narrow strait called Se Cockup, forming an excellent harbour. The islands are inhabited by an uncivilized people, who do not know the use of money, making no distinction between a metal button and a piece of gold or silver coin. They are divided into tribes, each inhabiting a distinct village on a river. Their houses are like those of the Sumatrans, of bamboo raised on posts, and the space underneath serves as a place for pigs and poultry, which, together with sago, constitute their food, for they grow no rice; the islands have red deer, but neither buffaloes nor goats. They abound in large timber, amongst which are poon trees, of sufficient dimensions for lower masts for a first-rate ship of war.

Larg, Bergen, and Trieste, or Pulo Mego, are three small islands in succession. Engano, or Deceitful Island, is twenty leagues distant from the coast of Sumatra; it is about four leagues long, well inhabited, and abounds in yams and cocoa-nuts.

The

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The east coast of Sumatra, from Achen Head to Diamond Point, is usually called the coast of Pedir; near the sea it is low, but inland rise high mountains of singular shapes. The only place of the coast visited by European traders, is Pedir, situated up a small barred river, accessible only to boats. Telisamoy is a town and fort on a river, visited by Malay proas. Sumatra.

From Diamond Point (Tanjong Goeree), the coast is low, with many rivers and villages, but is never visited by Europeans, the natives being extremely treacherous, so that unless a ship is well manned and constantly guarded, she is sure to be *cut off*. Pulo Varella on this coast, seven leagues off shore, affords wood, water, and turtle, but is infested by the Malay freebooters.

Batoobarra, in 3° 25′ N., is on a river navigable by small vessels, and a considerable distance up which is seen a large brick building, of whose origin no tradition is preserved amongst the natives. It is a square, with a very high pillar at one corner, thought to have been intended for hoisting a flag; figures in relief are carved on the walls, which the Malays believe to be Chinese, but which more probably are Hindoo.

Rakan, or Irkan river, nearly opposite to Malacca, is one of the largest rivers of Sumatra, penetrating like an arm of the sea, and navigable for sloops a long way inland. Siak river, farther east, is more accurately known by a recent survey. From its mouth to the town of Siak is sixty-five miles; and Pakanbharu, where the survey ended,

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Sumatra. ended, 100 miles more. The general breadth of the river is from half to three-fourths of a mile, and the depth seven to fifteen fathoms; but its mouth is crossed by a bar with only fifteen feet, and there are many shoals and islands before it. According to the accounts of the natives, the river is navigable with the tide eight days sail from its mouth. The Dutch had formerly a factory on an island in the river.

Indragiri is another river of magnitude, sloops tiding it up for five or six weeks, according to the relations of the Malays.

Jambee is a large town on a river, sixty miles from its mouth, and accessible to large boats; the English and Dutch had formerly factories on this river, but which have been long abandoned. An occasional ship from Bengal touches here to sell opium, the trade being carried on on board at the point of the bayonet.

Palambam, or Palembang river, rises near the west coast of the island, about a day's journey from Bencoolen, and empties itself by several branches into the strait of Banca; the land near its mouth is low and swampy, the breadth up to the Dutch factory, a distance of fourteen leagues, is near a mile, and it has depth for vessels of fourteen feet draft. The Dutch establishment in 1777 (and it does not appear to have been since increased), consisted of 115 Europeans, of whom about thirty were officers, civil and military. The Malay town of Palembang is the most considerable of Sumatra; it is sixty miles up the river, along both banks of which it extends for eight miles, besides

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besides a number of floating habitations on the river. The houses are like those of the Malays in general of wood and bamboo raised on posts. The sultan's palace is a large lofty building, surrounded by a high wall, and near it is the grand mosque, which appears to have been built by an European, having pilasters and a cupola, and glazed windows. Two forts mounting heavy cannon protect the town. Sumatra.

Besides Malays, a great many strangers are settled at Palembang, principally Chinese, Cochin-Chinese, and Siamese.

At the east end of the island, in the strait of Sunda, are the two large bays of Lampoon and Keyser, both forming good harbours; and that of Lampoon in particular is one of the grand rendezvous of the Malay pirates.*

The islands that attach themselves by their proximity to the east coast of Sumatra, particularly in the east entrance of the strait of Malacca, are so

* The greater part of the Malay archipelago is infested by pirates, whose proas often join till they form fleets of 200, each carrying 20 men, and two carriage guns (six or twelve-pounders), besides Rantakkas, or long swivels, of their own manufacture, with wall pieces and small arms. The first met with are those of Rio, whose chief rendezvous is Pulo-Lingin. The inhabitants of the north and west sides of Banca are also pirates, and their rendezvous is Munlok, on the west side of the island; the pirates of the east coast of Sumatra and the neighbouring islands frequent the bay of Lampoon. The people of Bally are all pirates, and their vessels, as well as those of Java, assemble at Cariman-Java. Mindanao and Sooloo are also full of freebooters, whose depredations are chiefly exercised amongst the Philippines.

The Chinese and Europeans who are so unfortunate as to be taken by these pirates are usually murdered; but the Malays, if they do not belong to their own island, in which case they are liberated, are sold as slaves to the Chinese and Indian Portuguese.

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so numerous and so little interesting, that we may be excused for passing them over with the general remark, that they are mostly rocky, all covered with wood, and generally affording fresh water. The Great and Little Dryon, or Durian, are two high islands separated by a narrow strait; the channel between them and the coast of Sumatra, into the strait of Malacca is called the strait of Dryon. The islands of Battam and Bintang form the south side of the strait of Sincapore (Governor's Strait of the French).

Bintang Island is visited by Chinese and Malay trading vessels. The sultan resides at Rhio, on the S.W. side of the island.

Pulo Lingin, under the Equator, is a large island with two peaks; its inhabitants are amongst the most cruel of the Malay pirates.

The island of Banca is separated from Sumatra by the Strait of Banca, thirty-four leagues long. The island extends in a direction N.W. and S.E., in which direction a chain of hills runs through it; one of whose summits, on the north, named Monopin Hill, and another on the south, named Parmesan, are marks for the navigation of the Strait. This island, which belongs to the Sultan of Palembang, in Sumatra, is famous throughout Asia for its tin mines, which were only discovered in 1710, and which afford 300,000 lbs. of metal annually without any appearance of their diminishing. The mines are worked by Chinese, who deliver the tin to the Sultan of Palembang, and who, in his turn, delivers it to the Dutch. The island

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island also affords copper and tutenague, and is esteemed healthy. The north coast is lined by reefs, within which are some good ports, but never visited by Europeans. At Rangan, at the west end, the Dutch had a small post.

Lucipera is a small islet in the fair way of the east entrance of the Strait of Banca.

The island of BILLITON lies in the centre of the passage between the Sunda and China sea, for which we have proposed the name of the *Channel of Borneo*,* and nearly midway between Banca and Borneo. The channel between Banca and Billiton is called Gaspar Strait, and that between Billiton and Borneo, the Carimata Passage. A great number of islands and reefs render the navigation of these channels perilous.

The chain of large islands between Sumatra and New Guinea are usually included by geographers in the denomination of *Sunda* Isles, from the strait of that name, which appears to derive from the Sanscrit *Sindu*, sea, great water or river, and which is probably the true ancient name of the internal sea, to which we have applied it.†

The island of JAVA is separated from the east end of Sumatra by the Strait of Sunda, about five leagues wide where narrowest. The island is 250 leagues long and thirty to fifty broad. Its name, according to some, signifies *great*, while others derive it from the Malay, *djav*, the name Java.

* Vol. i. page 14. † Ibid.

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Asia. of a grain that grows on it. The Arabs and Persians call it *Gezira al Maha Rajah*, the island of the great king.

Java is traversed by a chain of high mountains from east to west, approaching nearest to the south coast, and giving rise to innumerable torrents, which, in the rainy season, inundate all the low lands. The greatest elevation of the chain is towards the east, and the highest summits are on the narrowest part of the island behind Cheribon. Several of the mountains are volcanoes, of which that named Geté has an elevation of 8,000 feet.

The rivers of Java are inconsiderable, and their mouths generally closed by bars against the entrance of any but small vessels. The northern coast of the island is, in general, low and considered very unhealthy, from the marshes, stagnant waters, and thick vegetation, that cover the shore. At the distance of some leagues from the sea, the climate becomes salubrious and agreeable, and the cold increases in ascending from the foot of the mountains, until at the country house of the governor of Batavia, only six leagues from the city, the coolness of the morning and evening air renders fires agreeable. The vegetable and animal productions are entirely similar to those of Sumatra, which we have already minutely detailed. The Javanese also resemble the Sumatrans in their general character and customs, and speak the Malay language, with some modifications: The Mahometan doctrine is predominant throughout

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throughout the island; but in the mountains there is still said to be found a tribe, who, adhering to the original religion, abstain from animal food, believing in the metempsychosis. There are also found some descendants of an ancient Chinese colony, and many ancient Chinese temples are scattered over the island. The yellow colour reserved for the habits of the emperor seems also to have been adopted from China.

The island is divided by the Dutch into five sovereignties, Bantam, Jacatra, Cheribon, Soosoohoonam, and the Sultanat; the four first are dependant on the Dutch, and the last is to a certain degree under their controling influence. The nominal emperor or sultan resides at Soorikarta, on the south side of the island, and assumes the pompous titles of Prince of Princes, Support of the World, &c. &c. &c. The population of the island is estimated at two millions.

The kingdom of Bantam occupies the west end of the island. The king is appointed by the Dutch, but is always chosen from the royal family. Besides a large tribute in pepper, he is bound to deliver all the pepper and other commercial objects of his dominions to the Dutch alone.

Bantam, the residence of the king, is on a gulf on the north side of the island, near the west end. The gulf is filled with uninhabited islands and shoals, but has good anchorage for large ships. The city is at the head of the gulf, between two branches of a river, which are entirely choked up by sand, having only five feet at high water springs.

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Java. springs. The town is composed of scattered dwellings of bamboo, interspersed with cocoa-palms. The palace is within a square fortification of considerable extent, with regular bastions at the angles, mounting sixty-six cannon, several of brass, but few of them serviceable: they are chiefly of Portuguese and English make. The Dutch keep a garrison of 150 soldiers in the fort, on pretence of doing honour to the King, but in reality to guard him as a prisoner, no one of his subjects being allowed to enter the palace without the knowledge of the commandant.

Below the town, nearer to the river's mouth, is the Dutch fort of Speelwyk, mounting forty-eight guns, with a garrison of 150 men.

Subordinate to Bantam is the post of Anjera, consisting of a pallisaded fort surrounded by a ditch, with four four-pounders, and six or eight soldiers; here ships passing through the Strait of Sunda frequently touch for water and provisions. The territory of the Bay of Lampoon on the east end of Sumatra, is also subject to Bantam, and has Dutch inferior residents.

The kingdom of Jacatra succeeds to the east of Bantam: its last king was conquered by the Dutch in 1619, since when they have governed it as sovereigns.

Batavia, the capital of the Dutch Indian possessions, is situated on the river Jacatra, one of the largest of the island, which washes the town on one side, while a canal insulates it on the other, and answers the purpose of a wet ditch to the

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the works, which consist of a wall twenty feet high, built chiefly of coral rock, and flanked by twenty-two irregular bastions, with two to three pieces of cannon each. Four gates, with drawbridges, form the communications between the town and suburbs. The citadel is on the north side of the town outside the walls, and has a rampart twenty to twenty-five feet high, and four bastions. In it are the governor's palace and all the public buildings. Java.

The river, which is navigable for loaded lighters to the town, is shut by a barrier of wood below the citadel, and lower down is fort Loo, mounting six or seven guns pointed towards the river's mouth. On the opposite or east bank is also a fort, and extensive lines flanked with redoubts, to protect magazines, &c. All the fortifications, however, are incapable of any long defence.

The town is handsomely built, the streets intersecting each other at right angles, and in the middle of each is a canal from thirty to sixty feet broad, lined with masonry, and planted on each side with trees. Next the houses is a footway six feet wide, the outer edge of which is also planted with a line of trees; and between this footway and the canal is a road from thirty to sixty feet broad, gravelled for carriages and slaves, the latter being forbidden to walk on the footway: thus the streets are all from 114 to 210 feet wide, and the town contains twenty streets. The canals are crossed

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Java. by thirty-eight bridges. The places of worship are a Calvinist and Lutheran church, a Portuguese, Chinese, and Mahometan temples. The population is estimated at 160,000, of which 12 to 1,500 are Europeans, independent of the regular military force, 10,000 Chinese, and the rest Javanese, Portuguese, and slaves.*

The regular military force is 1,000 European infantry, 200 cavalry, and 3,300 Javanese and Madurans. The inhabitants are also formed into a militia, consisting of several regiments, each commanded by a member of the regency. The European inhabitants form two companies of infantry and a squadron of cavalry. The native Christians five companies, the freed slaves one company, the Moors one company, the Javanese proper three companies, the natives of Bally, Macassar, Amboyna, Bouton, Madura, Sumba wa, and Sumatrans, one company each, and the Chinese five companies, in all twenty-six companies.

The government of the colony is composed of a regency, consisting of the governor-general, six ordinary counsellors, a director-general of commerce, and nine extraordinary counsellors. The governor-general is, however, absolute, for though he

* Tombe, Voyage aux Indes Orientales. Travellers, however, estimate the population variously. In 1778, Huyers makes it 486 Europeans, exclusive of the Company's servants, 23,000 Chinese, 20,000 slaves, in all 111,000, not reckoning women and children. Another account in 1779 makes it 173,000, of whom 20,000 were Chinese and 17,000 slaves.

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he is obliged to consult the council, he is at liberty to reject their opinions on his own responsibility. Each of the counsellors is charged with the superintendance of one of the factories in India or the other islands, or else presides in one of the departments at Batavia. Java.

The council of justice or judicial court is composed of members named in Holland, and presided by a fiscal; this court is independent of the regency. The city of Batavia has a municipal government composed of one of the members of the regency and a number of citizens.

The road of Batavia is formed by several small islands, which shelter it in both monsoons. On Onrust, one of these islands, is the naval arsenal, surrounded by fortifications, but none of which command the road or the channels into it. On Parmurent island is the naval hospital.

The kingdom of Cheribon, east of Jacatra, is governed by three native princes very little more independent than the King of Bantam, the Dutch dethroning and banishing them when it suits their will and pleasure.

Cheribon, a large Javanese village, on a river, which empties itself by two mouths, both only navigable at high water for vessels of six feet. The Dutch have here a small brick fort with four guns, surrounded by a ditch, and garrisoned by seventy Europeans. The road of Cheribon is entirely open, and has but five fathoms two leagues off. At Cheribon is the grandest mosque of the island, and near it the Mahometans venerate the tomb of

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Java. Ibn Sheik Mollanah, the apostle of Islamism in this island.

East of Cheribon is the empire of Soosoohoonam, which formerly included all the east end of the island, but in 1740 the emperor ceded thirty, out of fifty-six, of his provinces to the Dutch; who by this cession acquired the whole sea coast to the east extremity of the island; at the same time that the nominal emperor and other princes bound themselves to deliver all the products of their territory to the Dutch company only.

Tagal is a native town of 8,000 inhabitants, twelve leagues east of Cheribon, to which succeeds Samarang, a Dutch and Indian town, on the Great River, of 30,000 inhabitants. It is the second establishment of the Dutch on the island; having a good fort, with several outworks, and a garrison of 150 Europeans and 450 natives. The road is open, and the depth only three fathoms one league off, and five fathoms one league and a half. The river carries out a great quantity of mud, which forms banks at its mouth, leaving but one channel into it for boats. It is said to be the most healthy situation on the north coast.

Japara is a small Dutch fort, near which are the ruins of an ancient city of that name, the capital of a kingdom, where is seen a temple of stone, of far superior workmanship to any thing produced by the Javanese of the present day.

The fort of Javanna is east of the promontory of Japara; and before it is the island Mandelique, the rendezvous of the Borneo pirates.

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The river of Javanna is one of the largest of the north coast, flowing from a large lake, called the Inland Sea, and having a depth of twenty feet, and a communication, navigable for boats, with the river of Samarang. The Dutch fort at Javanna is a redoubt with four demi bastions, and near it are Javanese and Chinese towns.

Rembang is a Dutch fort, four leagues east of Javanna; to which succeeds Sidayo, two leagues east of Panka Point (the point of Java that forms the west entrance of the Strait of Madura, and where pilots are usually taken for the strait), a native town and Dutch post of half a dozen Europeans.

Grassec, in the Strait of Madura, is a small Dutch fort, with a town on the beach, inhabited by Javanese and Chinese. There is no good water nearer to the town than half a league.

Surabaya, three leagues S.E. of Grassec, and one league up a river, is a Dutch fort, of brick, with a garrison of 100 Europeans and several companies of native troops. The Malay and Chinese towns are populous, and are on the opposite side of the river to the fort; the communication by two large wooden bridges. Vessels of 100 tons ascend to the town; and here the Dutch build the vessels employed in the coasting trade of their different eastern settlements, wood being plenty. The Surabayans are considered among the best of the Javanese seamen, and many of them enter on board English country trading vessels; there has been, however, so many instances of their massacreing

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Java. massacreing the captains and officers, and running away with the ships, that there seems to be much danger in receiving them.

Passowarang is a Dutch fort on a river navigable by proas a considerable distance: the fort is small but well built, and the Javanese town of considerable size. Rice is the chief export; the water is here so shoal, that ships cannot anchor nearer than three or four miles to the land.

Panaroukan is a small Dutch fort of a serjeant and three or four Europeans, one mile and a half up a river, which empties itself by several branches, none of which are accessible even to canoes except in the rainy season.

Banioowangui on a river in the province of Balambooang, at the east extremity of the island south of Cape Sandana, its N.E. point, is a small mud fort encompassed by a ditch, with a large Malay and Chinese town; it is considered extremely unhealthy, and is the place oftran sportation of criminals from Batavia, to work in the pepper and coffee plantations.

The south coast of Java being never visited by European vessels, is very little known. In sailing along, it appears very mountainous and to be beaten by a tremendous surf. Java Head, the S.W. point of the island, is a noted promontory, six leagues N.E. of which in the Strait of Sunda is Prince's Island (Pulo Seilan and Panetan of the natives), often touched at by ships to procure wood and water; it is one league and a half from the Java shore, and about six leagues from that of Sumatra,

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Sumatra; is low, but with two little hills, five leagues in circuit and inhabited by about 200 Malays, who supply ships with poultry, fruits, and fish: the best watering place is on the east end of the island. Both shores of the Strait of Sunda afford pleasing prospects: the Sumatran shore is low, but lofty mountains rise inland and conceal their heads in the clouds; the coast of Java, on the contrary, presents a smiling appearance of cultivation in the rice grounds and groves of cocoa-palms, while the islands Cracatoa and several others shoot up in verdant peaks from the bosom of the waters. Java.

The island of Madura is separated from the N.E. end of Java by a strait, only half a league wide between the opposite shores, but a bank on each side reduces the channel to one-fifth of a mile with three to four fathoms soft mud. Madura is twenty leagues long and eight broad. It is governed by a prince tributary to the Dutch, who also have taken from him two provinces towards the east end of the island, where are situated the principal towns of Samanap, Padakassam, and Sampan. The residence of the prince, who has the title of Pahambana, or *Adorable*, is at the west end of the island and has 8,000 inhabitants; the population of the island is 60,000, it abounds in rice and ship-timber, is moderately elevated, and the north coast is bold. Madura.

Pondy Island, four miles from the east end of Madura, is level, nearly round, eighty feet high, inhabited and well cultivated; as is Galliou Island

S.E.

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S.E. of Pondy. Kangelang is about thirty leagues farther east, and is a large island of considerable height, well inhabited and of a pleasant appearance.

Bally. The island of Bally is separated from the east end of Java by the Strait of Bally, five leagues wide, through which the tides run with great rapidity. Bally is twenty leagues long, and is traversed from N.W. to S.E. by a chain of high hills, covered with impenetrable forests and containing mines of gold, iron, and copper. On the east side of the island is Gilgil the residence of the sultan. The inhabitants are fairer and better made than the Javanese, and the slaves of this island are esteemed. The women burn themselves with their husbands' corpses.

Lombock. Lombock Island, *Salamparang* of the natives, is separated from Bally by the Strait of Lombock, in the entrance of which is Banditti Island, and though the strait is very narrow there are no soundings within a mile of either shore, and the depth is sixty to eighty fathoms a cable's length off. Lombock is of considerable size with a peak 8,000 feet high, but the east coast is low with plantations of cocoa-nut palms, and on this coast is the town of Bally, *Loboagee* of the natives, very populous and much frequented by Malay proas from Celebes, Amboyna, &c. for rice. Cattle and fruit of all kinds are also abundant; and the people are represented as very different from the generality of Malays, being friendly and honest in their dealings with Europeans.

Sumbawa

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Sumbawa* Island is east of Lombock, from which it is separated by the Strait of Alass, or *Gilleese*, of the natives, fifteen leagues long, and five to six miles broad, where narrowest. Sumbawa is sixty leagues long, east and west, with high irregular mountains running through it; it is thickly inhabited by friendly Malays, who as well as the Lombockers speak a language different from the common Malay, and write on the leaves of the palm-tree with an iron style. The Dutch had a post on Biman Bay, on the N.E. side of Sumbawa, chiefly for the purpose of procuring horses, a very small but active race of which is abundant on the islands east of Java. From this place the Dutch also procure superior sandal wood, in return for opium and India piece goods. Sumbawa.

Goonung Api, or the Burning Mountain, is three or four miles from the N.E. end of Sumbawa, and forms two sharp volcanic peaks.

Commodo, or Rotten Island, is separated from the east end of Sumbawa by the Strait of Sapy, named from a village on the Sumbawa shore. Commodo is a high island well inhabited, with several lesser ones near it. Commodo.

Mangeray Strait separates the island of Commodo from that of Flores, or Mangeray.† This latter is seventy leagues long, and fourteen to fifteen broad; at its east end is the volcanic mountain. Mangeray.

* *Sumbava* of the Portuguese, which is often erroneously written Sumbawa, in maps.

† Also called Ende in the old charts.

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mountain of Lobetobie, and several other volcanoes are seen near these islands. On the east side of Flores is Larantouca a village, where buffaloes, goats, hogs, fowls, and fruits, may be procured for gunpowder, balls, glass bottles, and cutlery. The island also affords sandal wood, bezoar, wax, and ambergris, which the natives send in their proas to Timor, where it is purchased by the Chinese. Many of the natives of Flores are Christians, having been converted by Portuguese missionaries.

Sandal-wood Island.

Sandal-wood Island, Tjinnana * of the natives, which is the Malay name for sandal-wood, is 100 miles long east and west; near the west end is a volcanic peak visible twenty leagues. The Strait of Flores separates the islands of Solor and Serbite from Flores; on Solor the Dutch had a fort named Frederick Hendrick, where they collected some wax and ambergris. Serbite is little known: to it on the east succeed Lombatta, Pantare, and Ombay, forming straits of their respective names, but little known. Pantare Island is of considerable size with a volcanic peak. Ombay, or Malloom, is sixteen leagues long east and west, is high, and from the numerous dwellings seen amongst the hills appears to be well inhabited.

Timor.

The island of TIMOR is eighty leagues long, N.E. and S.W., and twenty broad. A circle of low land borders the shore, but at the distance of three

* It would appear that the ancient name of this island is properly *Sumba*.

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three or four leagues commences a mass of lofty mountains; some said to be calcareous, and composed of sea shells to the height of 800 feet; while others are described as primitive, volcanic, and containing veins of gold. Besides the vegetables common to the Malay islands, which are here in the greatest profusion and luxuriance, the island possesses some species similar to those of New Holland, particularly the *eucalyptus*, and a kind of pine proper for masts; the cinnamon is also found in the interior. The rocky soil and the small quantity of level ground leaves few spots fit for the culture of rice, and the inhabitants live mostly on fruits. Among the animals is said to be one of the kangaroo genus. Timor.

The sea shores are chiefly occupied by the Malay race; but on the south coast is a race of negroes, governed by independent rajahs, who persuade their subjects that they are descended from alligators.

The Portuguese, when driven from the Moluccas, took refuge in Timor, and still occupy a portion of the N.W. coast, where they have the considerable settlement of Delly, or Dilil, visited annually by a ship from Macao. The Dutch established themselves on the S.W. coast of Timor in 1613, and built the fort of Concordia, on the Bay of Coupang. This fort is on a rock overhanging the water, and is garrisoned by fifty men. A little river runs at the foot of the fort, on both sides of which is a town, occupied by Chinese and Creoles, of about 150 houses of wood and bamboo, raised on

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Timor. on poles, and only one story, in consequence of the earthquakes to which the island is subject.

The Bay of Coupang is only safe in the eastern monsoon; during the western, vessels anchoring between Timor and Semao, a small island on the S.W.

Rotti Island, separated from Semao by a strait two leagues wide, is visited by the Dutch for rice and jagree. The inhabitants are painted as robust, and leading a most licentious life. Savu Island, between Sandalwood and Timor, is eight leagues long east and west. Its natives tatoo their skins like the islanders of the Pacific. The Dutch have a fort at Timan, on the S.W. side of this island, for the purpose of collecting rice. New Savu is S.W. of Savu.

N.E. of Timor are many islands, seldom visited by Europeans, and therefore little known; they are frequented by Macassar sailing proas. The names of the most considerable are, Pulo Cambing, with a volcanic peak and bubbling sulphurous springs; Wetter; Dog Island; Pulo Babee, or Hog Island; Pulo Jackee, or Noosa-Nessing; Leetee, a high island, of considerable extent, and Moa, abounding in sheep; Damma has a volcano and a small Dutch post; Cerowa; Nila Baber, a large high island; Timor Laut, the southernmost large island between Timor and New Guinea: it extends N.N.E. and S.S.W. twenty-five leagues, is generally high, and is surrounded by many lesser islands. The Keys are three large

large islands, N.N.E. of Timor Laut, and near the coast of New Guinea.

The Arroo Islands are a large cluster, also near the coast of New Guinea, and seem to be thickly inhabited by Papuas: they are low and covered with wood, producing all the fruits and vegetables of the Moluccas, and abounding in fowls. These islands are frequented by birds of Paradise, which it would appear quit the coast of New Guinea in the western, or dry monsoon, to seek the more humid atmosphere of the sea. The natives convey these birds, stuffed, to Banda, as well as sago and slaves, which latter they procure from the coast of New Guinea in predatory incursions. The Dutch claim the Arroo islands, and they are considered as in the government of Banda, but no establishment has been ever formed on them.

The second grand chain of the Malay Archipelago comprehends the islands of Borneo, Celebes, and the Moluccas, included between (nearly) the parallels of five degrees of latitude at each side of the equator, and between the longitudes of 110 and 132° E.

Borneo. BORNEO, if New Holland is raised to the rank of a continent, is the largest island in the world, being 270 leagues long and 225 broad. Our knowledge of it, however, is confined to the coasts, for the interior has never been visited by any European. In general the coasts are low and marshy, covered with wood and intersected by rivers. A chain of mountains runs from north to

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Borneo. south approaching close to the eastern coast. From the crystals contained in them, the Dutch have given them the name of the *Crystalline* mountains; several of them are volcanoes, and the island is subject to violent earthquakes; diamonds and gold are found in the soil. The vegetable productions are similar to those of Sumatra; and besides the nutmeg and clove, the trees that give the gum dragon and camphire abound, as well as the benzoin tree. The animals are elephants, tigers, very large wild oxen, wild hogs, and the animal called by the natives the water deer (*Cervus Axis*) which grows to a great size and lives in the marshes. Amongst the monkeys is the pongo having the stature of a man, and the orang-ootang (*Simia Satyrus*), whose resemblance to the human species has been much exaggerated; nor are we credulous enough to believe, that this animal lights a fire to dress its victuals, and blows it into a flame with its mouth.

The coasts of the island are inhabited by Malays of Sumatra, Java, Celebes, and the descendants of some Arabs; all these tribes are Mahometans and are governed by chiefs named Sultans.

The kingdom of Banjermassing is the best known to Europeans and occupies the S.E. of the island. On the river of Banjermassing, which is navigable for vessels of burden, the Dutch have a pallisaded fort, with some bastions and twenty to thirty soldiers; its chief intention is to collect pepper and rough diamonds. Near it is the native town of Tattas

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Tattas, of about 300 houses, mostly built on floats in the river. Borneo.

On the west coast are the kingdoms of Landak and Succadana: the town of the latter name is a great trading place, where the Dutch had formerly a resident. Pontiana in the same kingdom is fifty miles up the principal branch of a large river which has several mouths: here the Dutch have a strong fort. The richest diamond mines are in the vicinity of this place.

Momparva, sixteen miles up a river crossed by a bar, is a considerable trading place, being visited by many Chinese junks. Sambas, farther north, is also a great Chinese trading place. Borneo, formerly the capital of the whole island, is on the N.W. coast and contains 3,000 houses, many of which are built on stages in the river.

The north coast of Borneo is subject to the Sultan of Sooloo. On the S.E. is Passir, the chief trading place of the Buggess or Macassar Malays. The English formed an establishment here in 1772, but the resident being frightened at some disturbance among the natives, quitted the place, and no attempt has been since made to renew the factory.

The interior of Borneo is inhabited by a race named *Biadjoos* or *Viadhjas*,* but who call themselves *Dayaks* and *Eidahans*; they are taller, more

 robust,

* This name is said to be of Sanscrit derivation, and to signify savages; from the same root are derived the names of Batta and Beda, tribes of Sumatra and Ceylon. Many other circumstances seem to prove the ancient relations between the Malay Archipelago and India.

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Borneo. robust, and fairer than the Malays, and still more sanguinary and ferocious. Their clothing is only a girdle; they paint the body with various figures, and the chiefs draw one or two of their front teeth and substitute golden ones. Their habitation consists of a single large apartment formed of planks, which sometimes contains 100 persons, and over the entrance they suspend the heads of those they have murdered. In order to be entitled to take a wife, it is necessary to lay the head of an enemy at the feet of the bride, and the marriage ceremony consists in smearing the man with the blood of a cock, and the woman with that of a hen. Polygamy is not authorised, and when a woman commits adultery, instead of revenging the affront on the seducer, the husband kills three or four slaves, whose blood is supposed to wash out the stain, and the woman is quit for a beating or is divorced.

When a Biadjoo dies the corpse is kept in a coffin until a slave can be purchased to sacrifice, and when one is procured the corpse is burned and the slave beheaded, after being enjoined fidelity to his master in the other world. The Biadjoos seem to have no government. Their religion extends to the belief in a governing and preserving power, to whom they put up prayers and propitiate by human sacrifices, and they draw omens from the flight of a hawk.

The Alforezes or Haraforas, another tribe of the interior, seem to differ from the Biadjoos in

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in being of a darker colour and in the length of their ears. Borneo.

Besides the Malays and Biadjoos, there is said to exist in the mountains a race of negroes, who avoid all communication with the other islanders. None of this race, however, have been seen by Europeans.

A number of small islands, from their proximity, naturally attach themselves to Borneo; and we shall therefore notice the most considerable before we proceed along the grand chain to the east.

Balambangan is five leagues N.E. of Tanjong Sampan-Mangio,* the north point of Borneo, it is about fifteen miles long N.E. and S.W. It has two harbours; one on the north and the other on the south. The entrance to the former is embarrassed by sand banks but it is very capacious and safe; the southernmost can receive a fleet and has four fathoms, so close to the shore that a line of battle ship may fill her water by means of a hose from the land.

In 1773, the English East India Company procured the cession of this island, and several districts on the N.E. coast of Borneo, from the King of Sooloo, and formed an establishment on the island as an emporium of Malay trade; but in 1775, the factory was surprised by the Sooloos, who put the natives to death, and the Europeans escaped to the ships in the harbour. No settle-

 ment

* Called Cape Henry in some charts.

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Borneo. ment was again attempted until 1803, when the factory was restored, but again soon withdrawn on account of the advantage not compensating the expense.

Banguey is about a mile and a half distant from Balambangan, is twenty miles long rising to a peak on the N.W.; it affords fresh water from a river of some size, but is infested by pirates.

Cagayan Sooloo is an island twenty miles in circuit and of moderate height; it is dependant on Sooloo and is only visited by European ships for refreshments.

Sooloo. The Sooloo Archipelago is composed of a chain of islands extending in a N.E. and S.W. direction between Borneo and Mindanao. The largest island, or Great Sooloo, lies nearly in the middle of the chain; it is ten leagues long and four broad, is extremely fertile producing all the tropical fruits, and particularly excellent oranges. This island, though of so small extent, has wild elephants and small deer (*Cervus Axis*). The sea washes up considerable quantities of amber on the shores, chiefly towards the end of the west monsoon; at which period also a large pearl fishery is carried on among these islands, the oysters being brought up by dredges. The pearls, though inferior to those of Ceylon, find a ready sale among the Chinese. The island also afford birds' nests, gum copal, and tortoiseshell for commerce. The population of Sooloo is thought to be 60,000. The residence of the Sultan is at Bowan, a town of 6,000 inhabitants at the N.W. end of the island. Pangattarran, the

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the north western of the Sooloo islands, is long and low, without fresh water, but covered with cocoa palms; it is claimed by the Spaniards, as are Tappool and Seassee, other islands of the archipelago; while, on the other hand, it appears that Basilan, off the S.W. point of Mindanao, is subject to Sooloo. Sooloo.

The other islands of any consideration that attach to Borneo, are Carimata and Soorootoo in the channel of Borneo, and the Natunas and Anambas, a number of scattered islands in the China Sea, N.W. of the west extremity of Borneo.

The island of CELEBES is of so irregular a shape that the giving it any precise length or breadth would convey no idea of its size. It is formed by four peninsulas, enclosing three deep gulfs open to the east; on the west it is separated from Borneo by the strait of Macassar, fifteen to forty-five leagues wide and 115 leagues long. In general this island is covered with mountains, many of which are volcanoes in a state of eruption; but the coasts present a smiling appearance of perpetual verdure and rich cultivation. It has many rivers which precipitate themselves down the rocky precipices in beautiful cascades. The northern peninsula possesses gold mines and some of the mountains afford copper, iron, crystals, and great quantities of sulphur. Earthquakes are frequent, particularly in the northern peninsula. Celebes.

Among the vegetables is said to be the famous

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Celebes. *upas*, of which such exaggerated relations have been given, and with whose juice the Celebeans poison their *crisses*. The nutmeg and clove are indigenous in these islands, but the Dutch have endeavoured to extirpate them. The island has neither elephants nor tigers, but many wild hogs, deer, and it is said elks; it also possesses buffaloes, small bullocks with humps, goats, and sheep. The penetration of the sea into all parts of the island by its three great gulfs renders the climate salubrious and temperate.

The inhabitants of Celebes are divided into Buggesses and Macassars, and are the bravest of the Malay nations; but their courage is rather a momentary desperation than the cool intrepidity of reason: hence if their first onset is resisted they soon give way. The Buggesses are also the most trading of the Malay tribes, visiting all parts of the archipelago and even New Holland, to gather the *biche de mer* to sell to the Chinese. They are considered by the other Malays as setting the ton of fashion in dress. Their general language is Malay, but they have also a dialect of their own and a peculiar written character from left to right. The Buggess females far surpass the other Malay women in beauty, and their ingenuity in inventing new modes of sensuality, causes them to be chosen by the other sex, and particularly by Europeans, as mistresses; their jealousy is however alive to the slightest trifle, and affronts to their charms are usually revenged by a punishment worse than death, caused by the administration of poisonous philtres.

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The Portuguese established themselves in Celebes in 1525, and retained their influence until 1660; when the Dutch, by force and intrigue, succeeded in getting them expelled the island. Since this period the native princes have formed a kind of confederation, which is presided by the Dutch governor of Macassar. A considerable number of Chinese are settled in the trading ports of the island. Celebes.

The principal place of Celebes is Macassar, on the S.W. side of the island, and on a bay full of small islands and sand banks, which, while they render the entrance difficult, shelter it from all winds. Fort Amsterdam is surrounded by a high and strong stone wall; and without it is the town, named Vlaardingen, containing about 250 whites and 10,000 Chinese and natives.

Bonthian and Bpelecomba are small Dutch pallisaded forts at the south side of the island, and on a beautiful bay; behind which rises a peaked mountain, wooded to its summit. From hence the Dutch Spice islands are principally supplied with rice. The Great Gulf of Boni, also called Buggess Bay, is formed between the two southern peninsulas of the island. On the west shore is the town of Boni, of considerable size, situated on a river bearing the classical name of *Tempe*. Pulo Bay, or the Bay of Islands, is the gulf between the two peninsulas on the east side of the island; and the Gulf of Goonong-tella, or Tomini, is formed by the northern peninsula. In this gulf, and

Celebes. and on a river, the Dutch have a small fort; and on the N.W. they have the forts of Kemar and Manado, chiefly for the purpose of procuring rice and other provisions for their more eastern settlements.

The islands, which by their proximity attach to Celebes, are the Seleyer, a group off the east point of Bonthian Bay. They are well inhabited, produce large quantities of rice, and the natives manufacture much striped blue and white cloth from the cotton grown on the island. The Dutch have a resident on the largest island. Cambyna, Pangasani and Bouton islands lay off the S.E. end of Celebes. Cambyna, the westernmost, rises in a peak, visible twenty leagues. Pangasani is very long and narrow; its north end is low and marshy. Bouton is one of the most beautiful of the Malay Islands, being highly cultivated, and the surface diversified with gentle elevations and fine plains. The principal town is on an eminence, and is surrounded by thick walls, and defended by a stone fort, in which the sultan resides; he is an ally of the Dutch, but supports his independence in his island. Waway, or Weywongy Island, is off the north end of Bouton, and of considerable size.

The four Xulla Islands lie between the Celebes and the Moluccas, and are named separately, Xullabessy, Talyabo, Mangola and Lissamatula. They abound in sago and ebony; but their inhabitants are savage

savage and treacherous. Near one of them is a rock resembling a man, which the natives adore as a divinity.

A chain of islands extends from the N.E. point of Celebes to the south point of Mindanao, enclosing the Sooloo Sea on the east. The principal of this chain are Siao and Sangir; the latter is seven leagues long, abounding in fruits, goats and fowls, which the natives exchange for brass buttons and other trifles, having no idea of money. Among the chain are two or three volcanoes in a state of eruption.

Moluccas.

The Moluccas, in the original extent of the name, included only five islands, viz. Ternate, Tidor, Motir, Makian, and Batchian. The word Molucca seems to be Arabic, and to signify *Royal Islands*: each of them being anciently the residence of a sovereign. This name is now generally given to the archipelago between Celebes and New Guinea, and between Gillolo and Banda. It would, perhaps, be more correct to adopt, as a general name, that of Spice Islands, and to confine the Moluccas to their ancient limits.

These islands present the evident appearances of having undergone some great natural convulsion, being singularly broken, and rising in enormous peaks from the abysses of the ocean; most of them are also volcanoes either extinct or in a state of eruption. Earthquakes are likewise very frequent, though seldom violent. The nature of the

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Moluccas. the climate, and of the soil, in most of these islands, prevent the cultivating any kind of grain; the former being, for one season, a constant rain, and for the other an uninterrupted drought; while the latter is in general either spongy or rocky: hence the staple food of the islanders is derived from the sago palm, which nature has given to them in vast profusion, as if to compensate for the corn she has denied them. The chief riches of these islands however, and without which they would never have attracted the notice of Europeans, are their nutmegs and cloves, which are indigenous in no other region of the globe.

The most remarkable animals are the *Babeerousa*, or hogdeer, the opossum, the phalanger, the *moschus pygmæus*, and the wild hogs and common deer.

Valentyn notices a singular phenomenon in that part of the sea usually called the Banda Sea. Between June and September, every year, a current of white water occupies this part, first appearing towards the S.E. near the islands Key and Timor Laut, and gradually spreading to the shores of Ceram on the north, and of Ombay on the west, beyond which it disappears between Flores and Celebes. During the day its colour is that of milk, and in the night it emits a light similar to that of the horizon: the water which composes it seems to be agitated internally, and while the phenomenon lasts the fish disappear from the coasts.

Bouro,

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Bouro, the southwesternmost of the Spice Islands, rises abruptly from an unfathomable sea to a domed elevation that is seen thirty leagues. In the interior savages, named Alforezes, inhabit the borders of a lake, which appears to be subject to periodical increase and diminution, an island in it being said to appear and disappear at fixed periods. The interior of the island is very humid, abounding in springs, and the trees covered with moss. The island has buffaloes and deer; and among the trees are said to be the teak, the iron wood, a green ebony, and the tree that affords the *cayoo-pooty* (white wood) oil, which is chiefly prepared in this island. Rice and sago are very abundant; and though fish is not plenty the shores are covered with the most beautiful shells. Cajeli, the Dutch establishment, is at the bottom of a deep bay, on the east side of the island. The fort, named Defence, is in the middle of the town, and has only three or four guns and swivels mounted on ruined walls, with a garrison of fifty men. Its principal use is to collect the rice and sago of the island for Amboyna, on which it is dependent. *Moluccas.*

The island of Amblau lies off the S.E. end of Bouro, at two leagues distance. It is small, and has but few inhabitants.

Ceram is one of the most considerable of the Spice Islands, being near sixty leagues long, east and west; and is traversed through its length by parallel chains of mountains, whose summits rise to the elevation of 8,000 feet. Amongst the rocks is found a grey stone capable of resisting the most ardent

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Malayana. ardent heat; and there are hills of chalk, from which descend rivulets whose water is discoloured by this substance. The mountains are separated by frightful ravines, through which rush impetuous torrents, crossed only by the trees which fall from the precipices. The villages are often situated on terraces cut in the rocks, the ascent being by steps. The N.E. coast is covered by forests of the *casuarina*, and the island abounds in the sago palm; and, according to Forrest, possesses the nutmeg and clove. Among the birds which swarm in the forests is the cassowary.

The interior of the island is inhabited by the Alforeses, who are probably its aborigines, and have no other connection with the inhabitants of the coasts than to procure the iron and salt they require in exchange for the products of their mountains. They are a stout and strong race, and so active that they run down the wild hogs. Their clothing is only a bandage of cloth of the bark of a tree round the loins; their arms, a bamboo sword, and bow and arrows. The qualification for marriage in the men is the production of the head of a person whom they have treacherously murdered; nor can they build a new house until they have destroyed an enemy. The heads thus collected, after being triumphantly exposed in the villages, are conveyed to the inmost recesses of the woods, where their idolatrous rites are performed, and where, says Rumphius, "the devil answers their questions, and often carries away some of them, especially children, for three or four months, when

when he brings them back, after having presented them with certain presents." Valentyn gives a more rational account of these people, informing us that parents deliver their children to the priests to be instructed in the religion of the demon they worship; and the priests receiving the children in the darkest recess of their leafy temples, the parents are made to believe that they are sacrificed by the dismal screams they hear, and by the bloody spears being thrust through the roof of the temple. In three or four months, however, they are returned to them with presents of some Chinese copper coins on strings. The principal food of the Alforeze is the wild animals of the woods, rats and snakes. They take but one wife, to whom they are constant.

The island has several good ports, particularly Lahoo, near the S.W. end, where the Dutch had formerly a resident; Sawa, on the north, and Wakeo on the N.E.

The island of AMBOYNA, the principal of the clove islands, lays near the S.W. end of Ceram, and is composed of two peninsulas joined by a very narrow isthmus, across which the natives drag their canoes to go between the south and north sides of the island. The peninsulas enclose a large bay on the south, which is the only port of the island.

Both the peninsulas are mountainous. The bases of some of the hills are a fine grained granite, and many of the rocks are composed of a tender *schistus*, close to which is found a very hard

Moluccas. hard asbestos; some of the hills are also encrusted with sulphur.

The soil in the low grounds and valleys is a reddish clay mixed with vegetable mould and sand. Numerous rivulets descend from the hills and find their way to the sea, and are much swollen in the rainy season.

The south-east monsoon, from May to October, at Amboyna, and among the neighbouring islands, is the rainy season, and is accompanied by constant thunder, lightning, and frequent storms or whirlwinds; but it is a remarkable circumstance, that the rains do not extend to the island of Bouro though only twenty leagues distant from Amboyna, and with an open sea between them: at Bouro, on the contrary, the S.E. monsoon brings fair weather.

The clove tree constitutes the chief value of Amboyna; and the most useful vegetable is the sago palm, which affords the chief food of the inhabitants: besides, its branches answer the purposes of cork to buoy up the fishing nets, &c. and the *ejoo*, a parasite plant that adheres to its trunk, is made into strong cordage. Coffee and indigo are also cultivated, but in small quantity. With Valentyn's assertion before us, we dare not attempt even a list, much less a description of the *flora* of Amboyna, for, according to him, "the most laborious exertions of a long life would be insufficient to become acquainted with all the trees that grow on the lofty mountains and in the extensive and inpenetrable forests of this island:" nor will there appear much exaggeration in this, when it is known

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known that, "a little cabinet presented to Cosmo III. Grand Duke of Tuscany, was inlaid with 400 sorts of only the choicest and handsomest woods of the island." Moluccas.

The animals are deer and wild hogs, the flesh of which is almost the only meat eaten. Valentyn describes 528 species of fishes found here, and most of them peculiar to these seas. Snakes of several species are very numerous, as is also the lizard tribe, particularly the alligator and guana. The domestic animals are so few that their flesh is only seen at the tables of the richest whites.

The inhabitants of Amboyna are of three races, Amboynese, or Malays, Chinese and Europeans. The Amboynese are much handsomer than the more western Malays, and the women in particular, was it not for their complexion, might recall the ideas of the females of ancient Greece: neither do they "waste their sweetness on the desert air," being, whether married or unmarried, most devoted worshippers of the cyprian goddess; and a *teeming* bride is here sought for in preference, as giving proof of not being cursed with barrenness. Both men and women clothe themselves from head to foot.

The Amboynese are divided between the Mahometan and Christian religions; the former introduced by the Arabs, and the latter by the Portuguese and Dutch: both these religions are, however, tainted with many of their ancient idolatrous practices. The Amboynese are immediately governed by magistrates of their nation, named ra-

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Moluccas. jahs and orang-tuas, or old men. The population of the island, when it last fell into the hands of the English (1812), was 45,000; of whom 18,000 were Protestants. The Chinese do not exceed a few hundreds; and, besides the Dutch, a few of the descendants of the ancient Portuguese are still distinguished. The Europeans, exclusive of military, are not above 200.

Fort Victoria, the chief place of the island, is situated on the east side of the great bay; it is of considerable size, built of brick and surrounded by a wet ditch, and is, next to Batavia, the best fortification of the Dutch in India. The town is separated from the fort by a small esplanade. The houses of the Europeans (about fifty) form a handsome row, though generally built of wood, and but of one story, on account of the earthquakes. The streets occupied by the Amboynese run at right angles, and are kept very clean. Besides Victoria there are many small forts on the island chiefly intended to awe the natives.

The road of Amboyna is safe at all seasons, and the largest ships can anchor within a stone's throw of the wooden jetty at fort Victoria; the head of the bay also forms an inner basin.

The lesser clove islands subordinate to Amboyna are the following. Manipa, nearly midway between Bouro and the east end of Ceram; it is high, and has a spring, whose water the natives believe gives the itch to perjured persons who dare drink of it. On the south side of the island is a fort of ten or twelve guns. Kelang, near the west end of Ceram.

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Ceram. Pulo Babee, or Hog Island, between Kelang and Ceram. Bonoa, a high rugged island with several islets round it, close to the N.W. end of Ceram. East of Amboyna are Harauca, or Oma, which has several warm springs, and a fort on the west end. Saparoca, or Honi-moa, with a fort on the south. Noosa-laut, a little island covered with clove trees, one mile east of Saparoca; whose inhabitants, according to Valentyn, were still, in 1708, cannibals, and considered the cheeks and palms of the hands as the most delicate morsels. Off the east end of Ceram are the islands close together of Kessing, Ceram-laut, Goram, and several others. Moluccas.

The BANDA or NUTMEG Islands form a scattered group of ten in an open sea south of Ceram. The largest island is named Banda Lantoir, or Great Banda: it has the form of a crescent, the concave side facing the south, and with Banda Neira and Goonong-Api forming the harbour. Great Banda is twelve miles long, and about two miles and a half broad; it rises with a steep ascent to a ridge a few hundred feet high, and is entirely covered with nutmeg trees: the neat houses of the planters scattered near the shore give it a chearful appearance, and near the west end are some forts to defend the entrance of the harbour. Banda Neira, the second island in size, contains the chief settlement, consisting of Fort Nassau, a square work, of small dimensions, with a wet ditch; and

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Moluccas. above it, on an elevation, is the Castle of Belgica, built by the Portuguese, a pentagon with round towers at the angles, and surrounded by a wall with small bastions, but no ditch. This island is two miles long, and from three-quarters to one mile and a half broad. On the north it rises to a high hill, but on the south, where are the forts and town, it is level. The town consists of fifty houses of wood, thatched with the leaves of the sago-palm. Goonong-Api, or the Burning Mountain, is, as its name denotes, a volcano, 1,940 feet high, rising perpendicularly from the sea on every side except the S.E. where is a small plantation of nutmegs. It is nine miles in circuit, and is separated from Neira by a narrow channel. The harbour, formed between these islands and Lantoir, is fit for the largest ships. Pulo Pisang and Pulo Capella (Plantain and Ship islands) lay before the east entrance of the harbour. Pisang is three-quarters of a mile long; is uninhabited, and entirely covered with cocoa-palms. Pulo Carakca is a little uninhabited island, at the north entrance of the channel between Neira and Goonong-Api. Rosingen is a low island four miles east of Great Banda; it has no nutmegs, but is covered with other fruit trees.

Pulo Ay, or Way, seven miles west of Goonong-Api, is six miles in circuit, moderately high, and thickly planted with nutmegs. Pulo Ron, the westernmost island, is four miles from Pulo Way, and about the size of the latter; it is a mass of rock covered with wood, among which is the cabbage-

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cabbage palm, but it has no nutmegs, and is uninhabited, being only visited by fishermen to take turtle. The ruins of a small fort, said to have been constructed by the English, about the time of the massacre of Amboyna, are seen on it. Neither Pulo Way nor Pulo Ron have any harbour. Pulo Swangy, or Witch Island, is the northernmost of the group. Moluccas.

The aborigines of the Banda islands having been extirpated by the Dutch, the only inhabitants are the whites and their slaves: the former being (in 1795) about 200 and the latter 2000. The small extent and entire cultivation of all these islands but Pulo Ron, precludes their having any wild animals. The principal birds are of the parrot tribe, and the crowned pigeon is also found here, as well as the bird of this species that disseminates the nutmeg, by swallowing it whole and regorging it.

The isle of Oby seems to be the continuation of the chain of Xulla already noticed. The Dutch have a small fort on the west end. Farther north is the island Mya, formerly well inhabited, and abounding in clove trees, but which have been all rooted out, and the inhabitants obliged to quit it by the Dutch. It is of middling height and has a good road. Tyfoa island, N.W. of it, is low.

Gillolo, or Halamahera, is the largest of the Spice Islands, and in irregularity of shape resem-

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Moluccas. bles Celebes, being formed of four peninsulas, enclosing three large bays on the east: the interior of the peninsulas are occupied by high mountains rising in peaks. It abounds in buffaloes, deer, goats, and wild hogs, and is well inhabited. It is said to have nutmeg and clove trees towards the south. When Captain Forrest visited it, (1774) its dominion was divided between the kings of Ternate and Tidor, and consequently under the influence of the Dutch; at present, however, it seems to be governed by several independent chiefs.

North of Gillolo is the island Mortay, covered with sago trees, but thinly inhabited.

The Moluccas proper form a chain along the west side of Gillolo. The southernmost and largest is Batchian, governed by its sultan, who also possesses Oby, Ceram, and Goram, but the Dutch have a fort on Batchian to prevent the cultivation of cloves. Mandoly, S.W. of Batchian, has a good harbour, called Bissory. Tawally succeeds to the north of Mandoly, to which succeeds the Latta Satta group, on the N.W., of which one is of considerable size, and the rest are a mixture of bare rocks and woody islets.

Mackian contains a large volcano, whose crater forms a great chasm from its summit to its foot. Motir is also a great volcano. Tidor is composed of elevated lands, well watered and thickly inhabited. Its sultan possessed a part of the S.E. side of Gillolo, and claims the sovereignty of Waygion, Mysol, and Battanta.

Ternate

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Ternate, the northernmost and most important of the Moluccas, is about ten leagues in circuit: its sultan reigned over Mackian and Motir, over the northern part of Gillolo and Mortay; and to him likewise belongs the N.E. part of Celebes, the islands of Siao, Sangir, and others. This prince, according to Valentyn, can raise 80,000 armed men, which, however, does not prevent his abject subjection to the Dutch, whose Fort Orange has not a garrison of more than three or 400 men. Ternate rises in mountains which lose their heads in the clouds, one of which is a volcano in a state of eruption: the island abounds with springs. There are many of the descendants of the Portuguese on this island. Moluccas.

The Sallibabo islands are a group forming the link which unites the Moluccas with the Philippines.

The last and best defined division of the Malay Archipelago is the PHILIPPINES, extending between the latitudes 5° and 20° N., or from Borneo nearly to Formosa; their number is estimated at above 10,000, but 500 or 600 only are of any consequence, all the remainder being mere rocks not half a mile in circuit. Philippines.

These islands offer a terribly magnificent spectacle. The mountains which cross them in every direction lose their heads in the clouds, while their sides are covered with basaltes, lava, scoriæ,

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Philippines. and other volcanic matter, and in many places are seen boiling springs and wells of liquid burning sulphur. All these appearances and phenomena are the work of extinct volcanoes, of those still in ignition, or of fires concealed in the bowels of the earth, which produce frequent and terrible earthquakes.

The surface of these islands is furrowed by innumerable ravines, and has many large tracts of marsh and turf and some considerable lakes.

The same variety of seasons is found here as on the coasts of Hindostan, and proceeds from a similar cause, the chain of mountains that run through the Archipelago from north to south. During the monsoon from May to September the rain is continual on the west coasts, and all the plains are transformed into lakes. Violent storms are also experienced at this season; while towards the north and east the winter is serene and dry. The N.E. monsoon in October, however, brings similar rains and storms on these coasts. This constant humidity of the atmosphere renders these islands supereminently fertile, and preserves a perpetual verdure, not only in the trees, but on the meadows, which produce a luxuriant herbage, and are throughout the year enamelled with flowers of the most beautiful tints.

The wild animals of the Philippines are buffaloes, deer, and hogs, in great numbers, and the domestic ones chiefly bullocks and hogs; the lard of the latter being used as butter.

According to tradition these islands were anciently

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ciently possessed by a negro race, which, on the invasion of the Malays, fled to the mountains, which they still inhabit, and are known by the various names of *Ygorrotes, Finguianes, Calingas, Italones*, &c. They were formerly described as descending from their mountains, massacring the other natives they met, and carrying off their heads as trophies. At present, however, they seem to trade peaceably with the Spanish subjects. They live on wild honey, the flesh of wild beasts, and roots: their dress is made of the bark of trees, and their cabins composed of branches. Philippines.

The Indians, or Malays, are divided into many nations, the two principal of which are the *Tagalls*, in Luconia, and the *Bissayas*, in the central islands.* The Tagalls believe themselves to be descended from a colony of Bornean Malays. The total population of the islands is very differently estimated between 700,000 and three millions; and one writer makes the Malay population of Luconia, subject to the Spaniards, one million and a half.

The island of LUCONIA, the most considerable of the Philippines, has its name from the native word *Luson* (written *Luçon* by the Spaniards) the name of a kind of pestle used by the natives to free their rice from the husk, and which the first discoverers took for a war club. The island is of very irregular shape, the southern extremity being formed

* The Bissayas received from the early Spanish navigators the name of *Pintados*, from the custom of painting their skins.

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Philippines. formed of a number of peninsulas, making two great bays, that of Manilla on the west, and of Lampoon on the east. A great portion of the tract between these bays is occupied by the *lake of the bay*, forty-five leagues in circuit, and which is formed by the waters of fifty to sixty rivers and rivulets, and empties itself into Manilla bay, by the river Passig. The lake is navigable by large boats, and in it is an island nine leagues in circuit, which, though very fertile, is uninhabited. It would appear that the lake has a communication with some of the volcanoes that surround it, its waters being at times strongly impregnated with sulphur, which destroys the fish. There are also many hot springs in its vicinity. The shores of the lake to the feet of the mountains are well cultivated, producing abundance of rice, indigo of a superior quality, pepper, cocoa and areca nuts, and logwood. The uncultivated plains abound in wild buffaloes, deer, and hogs.

Luconia produces iron, copper, and gold, of which the latter only is collected in small morsels.

The east coast of Luconia is very mountainous and little productive, the strong easterly winds and atmosphere of the sea destroying vegetation. The mountains on this side are chiefly occupied by the natives, who have fled from the Spanish dominion. The N.E. point of the island is Cape Engano, and the N.W. Cape Bojador.

Manilla, the chief city of the island and of the Spanish possessions, is situated near the mouth of

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of the river Passig, which issues from the lake of the Bay, and which was formerly navigable for the largest ships to Manilla, but at present it is crossed by a sand bank, with but fifteen feet at high water. The streets of Manilla are wide and straight: the basement of the houses only are of stone, on which is erected a superstructure of wood, put together like the frame of a ship, so as to cede to the shocks of earthquakes, which are almost continual here. The population is chiefly composed of Spanish Creoles, Chinese, and Malays, in the proportion of 1,200 Spaniards and 35,000 Malays. The Chinese who newly arrive, and intend to remain, are obliged to get themselves baptised, when they are allowed to marry a Malay Christian woman, never bringing their women with them, and to carry on the professions of shopkeepers or mechanics, for they are prohibited from being proprietors or cultivators of land. Philippines.

The fortifications of Manilla are irregular, having been built at different periods, without any original plan. The castle is separated from the town by a ditch, and is surrounded by a wall with outworks: the usual garrison is four to 500 regular troops, of whom one-third are seldom Europeans.

The port of Cavita, two leagues from Manilla, is sheltered by a point of land on the S.W.; and vessels when obliged to quit the road of Manilla in the S.W. monsoon, find perfect security moored close under the walls of Cavita. This town contains about 2000 Spaniards and half-cast,

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Philippines. cast, and 1,000 Chinese. It has two churches and three immense convents of monks. The Black Town contains about 5,000 Malays.

The royal naval arsenal is situated on the point of the tongue of land that forms the port; it is strongly fortified and protected by a citadel.

New Segovia and New Caceres, the other towns of Luconia, though episcopal cities are insignificant.

The government of the Philippines is lodged in a captain-general sent from Mexico, to which viceroyalty he is subordinate: his appointment is for eight years.

The military force of the colony is about 5,000 regular troops, mostly American Spaniards, or Malays, with a very few European officers; and 10 to 12,000 militia.

The naval force stationed at Manilla during the late wars never exceeded four sail of the line, five frigates, and some small vessels, with a flotilla of thirty to sixty gun-boats. The latter are intended to cruize against the pirates, but they seldom venture out of harbour, and the ships of war are badly equipped and not half manned.

The revenue of the Philippines does not cover its expenses, 500,000 dollars being received annually from Mexico to make up the deficiency. The chief sources of revenue are a capitation-tax on every Indian between the ages of sixteen and sixty of one dollar and a half for every five persons, and half a dollar for the church; a capitation of six dollars per annum, paid by every Chinese

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Chinese established in the colony, whose number is estimated at 80,000, but owing to the connivance of the alcades only 7,000 pay the tax. The other branches of the revenue are from taxes and customs: the respective products are as follows.

Revenues.	*Dollars.*	*Expenditure.*	*Dollars.*
Capitation of the Indians	573,000	Civil Government	173,500
——— Chinese	42,000	Military and naval establishments	1,472,000
Tax on Tobacco	600,000	Establishments on Mindanao	20,000
——— Areca Nut	40,000	Babuyanes	2,000
——— Spirits	200,000	Clergy	385,000
——— Imports and Exports	200,000	Pensions	30,000
——— Stamps	12,000		2,082,000
——— Cock-fighting*	60,000		
	1,727,000		

Between the north end of Luconia and Formosa are two clusters of islands, which with Bottol Tobago, already noticed, form a chain uniting the Philippines and Formosa. The nearest to Luconia are the five Babuyane Islands, named from the largest of them; they are elevated, fertile, but bare of wood, and have only an European serjeant and some monks on them.

The Bashee Islands, farther north, were visited by

* The Malays of the Philippines are as much addicted to this amusement as those of the southern islands, and the Spaniards licence the cock-pit.

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Philippines. by Dampier in 1640, who gave four of them the names of Richmond, Grafton, Monmouth, and Orange; they are covered with verdure, and inhabited by Chinese, who cultivate sugar-cane and other vegetables, and raise hogs, goats, and poultry.

Balingtang or Richmond Islands, the southernmost of the group, are three high peaked and uninhabited rocks. Ratan or Monmouth Island is three leagues long, with a high mount at its north extremity. Sabtang, Monmouth Island of Dampier, is separated from the S.W. point of Ratan by a narrow gut; it is only three miles long. Bashee and Goat Islands are small, but with cultivated spots. Grafton Island is small and steep to. Bayat or Orange Island is two leagues long, elevated, rocky, and barren, without anchorage. The north Bashees are two small high islets.

The remaining islands of the Philippines form three natural subdivisions. First, the central islands, whose inhabitants name themselves *Bissayas*, and which name has been transferred to the islands. The second division contains the chain extending between Luconia and Borneo, of which Palawan is the principal; and Mindanao forms the third.

The chief islands of the Bissayas are the following. Mindoro, twenty-five leagues long and fifteen broad, mountainous, covered with wood, well

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well watered, and abounding with deer. The coasts are alone subjected to Spain.* Philippines.

Samar, separated from Luconia by the Strait of St. Bernardino; it is forty-five leagues long, and abounds in rice. The port of Palappa on the north is sometimes visited.

Panay, about twenty-five leagues long, has vast herds of horned cattle, sheep, and horses; is fruitful, and affords gold dust.

Negros has this name from the race that principally inhabit it; its native name is Buglas: it is forty-five leagues long and ten broad. It forms a province of the Spanish dominion and is chiefly valuable for a pearl fishery carried on near it. The Malay population subject to Spain is 22,000.

Cebu, twenty-eight leagues long and six broad is generally rocky, and its own commercial productions confined to gold dust and ebony; but it is the depot for all the products of the Bissayas, which are collected here to be transported to Manilla: the whole amount, however, does not exceed the cargo of one annual brig. The subjected Malays of Cebu are 58,000. The little isle of Mactan is only worthy of notice as containing the ashes of Magellan.

Leyte, separated from Samar by the strait of St. Juanico, navigable only by small craft, is forty leagues long and fifteen broad; it has an esteemed breed

* The French wished to form an establishment on this island under the administration of the Duc de Choiseul, but the Spanish government remonstrating against it, the idea was abandoned.

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Philippines. breed of horses; the subjected population is 22,000.

PALAWAN,* the principal island of the western chain, is sixty leagues long and ten broad: a small part of it only is subject to Spain. It affords ebony, cacao, logwood, and wax. The Calamianes, or Isles of Canes, near its north end, are three small but inhabited islands. The number of natives subjects of Spain in Palaruan and these islands is 37,000.

MINDANAO, which forms the third division of the Philippines, is next to Luconia in extent, having near 300 leagues of circuit, but is very irregular, being deeply indented by a gulf, enclosed by a peninsula on the west. Its name (*Magindanao* properly) is a compound of *Mag*, related to, *in* country and *danao*, a lake, signifying *relations living in a country round a lake.*

The interior of the island is occupied by lofty ridges of mountains separated by plains and covered with forests of *teak* and *poon.* Its minerals are little known, but some gold dust is brought to market and *talc* is abundant. The island is profusely watered, containing more than twenty navigable rivers, and near the south is a lake sixty leagues in circuit which discharges its waters by a large river. The soil is extremely fertile, producing

* In most charts this island is called *Paragoa* and Paraguay, a name found in Marc Paul's relation.

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ducing rice and sago in abundance, and a species of cinnamon, but inferior to that of Ceylon, is indigenous. The forests swarm with wild horses, bullocks, buffaloes, goats, and hogs. Philippines.

The sea coasts are occupied by Malay Mahometans, who speak the Bissayan dialect as well as the Malay. In the interior is a race of negroes named *Haraforas*, who have little communication with the Malays.

The island is politically divided into three sovereignties. The first, under the sultan, is the most considerable and occupies the S.E. portion of the island; his residence is at Selangan on the east shore of the Great Illano Bay, and on the large river Pelangy, which empties itself by two branches, whose mouths are crossed by bars with two and three fathoms at high water. The town consists of about 200 houses, with a fortified palace of the sultan and several wooden castles of the *datoos* or nobles. The passage of the river is also defended by a large pallisaded fort with many cannon and swivels. A number of Chinese are settled here. This is one of the chief residences of the pirates and where they build their vessels.

The second sovereignty of the island is the *Illano* country, and is of a feudal nature, being under many chiefs. The third and smallest portion, chiefly comprehending the sea coasts of the western peninsula, is subject to the Spaniards whose principal establishment is Samboangan on the S.W. extremity of the peninsula. It consists of a fort of masonry surrounded by a rampart of earth; its

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Philippines. ordinary garrison is about 150 men; it seems to be of little other use to the Spaniards, than as a place of transportation of their convicts from the other islands.

Misamis, the second Spanish establishment, is on the north side of the island and has a garrison of 300 men. Correga, the third and last, is an insignificant post on the east.

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THE PAPUA ARCHIPELAGO.

The PAPUA ARCHIPELAGO forms a natural division of the Grand Archipelago, being separated on the west from the Molucca islands by the channel named the Gillolo Passage; on the south from New Holland by Torres' Strait; on the north it has the Papua Sea; and on the east is separated from *Polynesia* by the sea between the New Hebrides and the Friendly Islands. This archipelago possesses neither horned cattle, horses, or sheep, the domestic animals being confined to hogs and dogs, and of their wild ones we have scarce any knowledge.

The first islands of this archipelago are west of New Guinea, and are in part dependent on the Moluccas. Such is Mysol, or Mixoal, fifteen leagues east of Ceram, and fourteen leagues long east and west; it has the good harbour of Efbe, formed by a little island on the south.

Pulo Popo and Geby are islands of some size N.W. of Mysol, and in the Gillolo passage.

Salwatty and Battanta are populous islands governed by their rajahs; the narrow strait that separates them is named Pitt's Passage, and has 100 fathoms depth close to the shores.

Waygioa, a considerable island, separated from

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the N.W. extremity of New Guinea by Bougainville's Strait, and from Battanta by Dampier's Passage. The coast of this island forms a striking contrast to those of the neighbouring Moluccas, being of a forbidding appearance, composed of an assemblage of detached mountains, rising abruptly from the sea to a great elevation; the vallies are however fertile, producing a variety of fine fruits, particularly cocoa-nuts, shaddocks, papas, limes, together with sugar-canes, yams, sweet potatoes, cacao, maize, &c. In the centre of the island is a large lake, with many islands in it.

The woods abound in crowned pheasants, wood-hens, and black cockatoos. The animals domesticated are only hogs, which, as well as poultry are abundant. The inhabitants go naked, except a coarse cloth round the middle; their arms are bows and arrows; their number is vaguely estimated at 100,000. The two good harbours of Offak and Piapis are visited by Chinese trading vessels. The isles Fan are a large cluster north of Waygioo, on an extensive coral reef; they abound with turtle.

New Guinea. NEW GUINEA, the largest of the Papua islands, is situated between the Equator and the 10° of south latitude; its length (supposing it to be one island), from Cape Blanco, or of Good Hope, on the N.W. to Cape Rodney on the S.E. is between 400 and 500 leagues, and its greatest breadth 130.

The west part of the island is the best known, and there is reason to suppose that the two peninsulas marked on the charts as forming it, are in reality

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reality islands separated by very narrow straits. The western peninsula forms on the south the gulf of Macluer, and on the north, between the two peninsulas and the main land, is the great gulf of Geelvink, sixty leagues long, and, according to the charts, separated from the southern gulf west of Cape Walsh by a very narrow isthmus; the strong current setting to the north, however, experienced by Bougainville in crossing this bay renders the existence of a strait probable. Before this gulf are the isles Schouten, Djobee, and others, which were long considered as part of the terra firma. The rest of the north coast, discovered by the Spaniards Menezes and Saavedra, and visited by Le Maire, Tasman, Dampier, Carteret, and Bougainville, seems to present an unbroken coast lined by a chain of islands; nevertheless there are many considerable spaces marked on the charts as *doubtful*. Among the *eastern* Schouten's islands * were four volcanoes in eruption, when the Dutch visited them. The isles Moa and Arimoa, further west, present the appearance of gardens of cocoa palms. All the islands of the north coast appear to be thickly inhabited. New Guinea

The south coast is not better known than the north. The gulf west of Cape Walsh of Cook, is traced in the charts in different manners; at its head the Dutch place the great rivers

* Situated between 140° and 145° of longitude. The *western* Schouters before the bay of Geelvink are in about 135°.

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New Guinea. of Assassins, and of *Reerver*, or Return. From Cape Walsh to Cape Rodney, of Edwards, the knowledge is confined to the space seen by Cook in Torres' Strait, which is low land, and probably composed of islands. The coasts of New Guinea are generally elevated, and the mountains rise towards the interior, where they seem as if heaped on each other; and down their sides grand cascades are seen tumbling at many leagues distance. In the western peninsula, the summit of Mount Arfak passes the region of the clouds; and N.E. of the Arroo isles the Dutch charts mark mountains topped with snow, consequently near 20,000 feet high. The mountains towards the sea are thickly covered with wood, and the margin of the shore presents a continued forest of cocoa palms. Captain Forrest found the *long* nutmeg at Dory Harbour, on the west peninsula. The trees chiefly mentioned by the Dutch are a species of laurel, whose aromatic bark, named *massoy*, is exported; iron-wood, ebony, *lingoa*, *canary*. The sea washes up large masses of ambergris, and fine pearls are also found here.

The quadrupeds are only wild and domestic hogs; but the ornithology is more rich, New Guinea being the peculiar country of the elegant and romantic bird of paradise, of which there are ten species, all clothed with the most beautiful plumage; they are either shot with blunted arrows, or taken with birdlime or snares, and preserved by smoking with sulphur. Their legs being usually cut off, gave rise to the idea of their wanting

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wanting these members, and the consequent necessity of their being ever on the wing. As their food is insects, it is impossible to keep them alive for any time. The beautiful crowned pigeon named *goorroo*, is also a native of New Guinea, as well as the bronze-winged pigeon. New Guinea.

The great mass of the population of New Guinea appears to be composed of the true *oceanic negroes*, named by the Malays, *Papuas*, i. e. *woolly headed*. They are of large stature, robust, of a deep black, the skin rough, the eyes large, the mouth wide, the nose flat, the hair frizzled and wiry, and of a shining black, in which respect they chiefly differ from the African negroes. The women have enormous pendant breasts. The whole figure of the Papuas is horrible. Their skin is generally disfigured by marks, resembling those of the leprosy. They gather their hair on the crown of the head, in a bunch, sometimes three feet round, and into which they stick the tail feathers of the bird of paradise, while a great number of wild hogs' tusks are hung round their necks: they perforate the cartilage of the nose, and stick various ornaments in it. The women wear a copper ring in the left ear. Their huts are usually built on stages, or rafts, on the water, or on posts, like those of the Malays. The females manufacture fishing-nets, mats, and earthen pots, and even fell the trees, while their husbands amuse themselves in hunting the wild boar, or laying snares for the bird of paradise. Their arms are spears and bows and arrows, and even copper

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New Guinea. swords; and Captain Cook observed them use a tube, from which issued smoke or fire, without any report. Their proas, or canoes, are neatly finished, and adorned with elegant sculpture.

In the interior is said to exist a race even more savage than the *Papuas*, named *Haraforas*, who live in the cavities of trees.

The Chinese still continue their ancient intercourse with New Guinea, visiting in their junks the N.W. coast, whose inhabitants they furnish with tools and domestic utensils, and receive in exchange ambergris, tortoiseshell, mother of pearl shell, pearls, birds' nests, and trepan. A few adventurers from India have also, of late years, visited the west coast in search of spices.

North of New Guinea are some scattered small islands worthy of notice; such are St. David's and Freewill, which, with others to the east and west, form a long chain nearly on the equator. Those named Freewill by Carteret, are inhabited by the same race as the islands of the Pacific, and speak the same language, a fact deserving of notice in the history of the dispersion of the races of mankind.

New Britain. To New Guinea succeeds NEW BRITAIN, which were considered as one island until Dampier sailed between them. Carteret afterwards diminished the supposed size of New Britain, by discovering the insularity of his New Ireland; and there is reason

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reason to suppose that what still continues to be marked as a united land is a group of islands. New Britain.

Near the coast the land is low, but rises to high mountains inland, some of which appear to be volcanoes. Dampier staid some time in the harbour named Port Montagu, on the south coast, where he found the country covered with wood, and well watered by large rivers. The vegetables noticed were cocoa palms, alloes, rattans, bamboos, and ginger. An animal resembling the dog was the only one seen. The bay and rivers abounded in fish, and the country appeared to be well peopled by Papuas.

New Ireland was visited by Carteret, who discovered its separation from New Britain by a channel, named by him St. George. Sailing along the south coast for eighty leagues, he observed it to be in general elevated. His *Gower Harbour* is the *Port Praslin* of Bougainville, where the latter navigator discovered the pepper plant. Near Carteret Harbour Labillardière observed mountains partly composed of marine substances, and one of whose inland summits has an elevation of 8,000 feet. Here were met the enormous bat named *vespertilio vampyrus* and the bread-fruit tree; and on Cocoa-nut Island of Carteret, which forms the harbour, and which is a mass of calcareous rock, were found the *borringtonia speciosa*, the *pandanus*, a species of areca palm, 140 feet high, with a very slender stem; a very large species of *solanum*, the teak, and several gum-trees. The sago palm and bastard New Ireland.

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New Ireland. bastard nutmeg were also noticed on the shores of this harbour.

The natives of New Ireland are Papuas. They go entirely naked, smearing their faces, and powdering their heads with white clay: their ornaments are strings of shells and teeth; their arms bows and arrows, spears, clubs, and shields; their huts have only an opening to crawl in on their hands and knees. Their canoes, however, are neatly formed of a single tree, sometimes 90 feet long, and furnished with outriggers.

Duke of York's Island, nearly in the middle of St. George's channel, is twenty miles long and the same breadth; it is level, and the interior covered with large trees. The habitations of the natives are ranged close to each other near the beach, amongst groups of cocoa-nut trees. On the north and south sides are some small islands.

New Hanover, a considerable and elevated island, separated from the western extremity of New Ireland by a passage called Byron's Strait, in which are several islands, one of which, with a remarkable peak, is named Byron Island.

West of New Hanover, eight leagues, is a group named Duke of Portland's Islands: they are six or seven in number, five of which are pretty large. They extend eight miles, east and west, and are apparently connected by reefs.

Sixteen leagues further west are the Admiralty Islands, a group of twenty or thirty, some of which are of considerable size; one of them rises to a cone

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cone of great height. The inhabitants are described as having the skin lighter than the Papuas, and features resembling those of Europeans: they go quite naked, and are armed with lances, headed with bits of volcanic glass.

The Hermit's Island and low islands of Bougainville form a long chain west of the Admiralty group; they produce the love apple, and fruits of different species of *eugenia*, good to eat. They are inhabited by the same race as the Admiralty Islands.

The following islands are the most considerable of those that lay north of New Ireland.

Prince William Henry's Island, discovered by Lieutenant Ball in 1790, is seventy miles in circumference, and tolerably elevated, with a high mountain named Mount Philip in the centre. It is inhabited and well cultivated. Tench's Island is east of Prince William Henry's, and is only two miles in circumference; low, covered with cocoa-nuts, and inhabited. St. John's Island, discovered by Le Maire, is large and high, and bears N.E. seven or eight leagues from Cape St. Mary, the east point of New Ireland. Sir Charles Hardy's Island of Carteret, ten leagues east of St. John's, is large and level.

South east of New Guinea is a considerable and well defined archipelago, discovered by Bougainville, and named Isles of *Louisiade*. It is composed of many islands, surrounded by reefs, and inhabited by two distinct races, one as black *Louisiade.*

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Louisiade. as the negroes of Guinea, and the other much lighter: both go entirely naked and armed with bucklers, and clubs of serpentine; and they use nets for fishing. The cocoa and areca palm are abundant, and from the perfume brought by the land wind, it is supposed they possess some sweet smelling trees.

Solomon's Islands. East of the Louisiade Archipelago and S.E. of New Ireland, a large chain of islands extends N.W. and S.E., which are now generally admitted to be the *Solomon's* islands discovered by Mendana in 1568. Their rediscovery is due to two French navigators, Surville and Bougainville; the former in 1776 sailed along the north coasts, to which, supposing it to be a connected land, he gave the name of *Terre des Arascides*, or of Assassins, from being attacked by the natives. The year before Bougainville had visited the N.W. part of this chain, and named two of the islands Bougainville and Bouka, the latter from a word frequently repeated by the natives, and which appears to be the island named *Première Vue*, or First Sight, by Surville, and the Lord Anson's Island of Carteret. In 1788 Lieutenant Shortland of the English navy sailed along the south side of these islands, which he named *New Georgia*, not knowing, as it appears, of the prior discoveries of the French; and the *Port Choiseul* of Bouganville is his *Indian Bay*.

In combining the scattered notions of these islands

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Solomon's Islands.

islands to be found in the ancient and modern descriptions, the following are the most certain results: the archipelago of Solomon is composed of the following islands from N.W. to S.E. *Bouka*, or Lord Anson's Island; *Simbon*, of Shortland, probably *Malayta* of Mendana, the strait between them, was named both by Bougainville and Shortland after themselves; but the former navigator passed through it without seeing the group named Treasury Islands by the latter. *Isabella* Island of Mendana, the largest of the chain; *Guadal Canal*; *San Christoval*, the south eastern, near which is the isle of *Contrarieties* of Surville. A number of other islands have also been identified with those named by Mendana.

These islands are generally elevated, and the summit of Mount *Lammas* of Shortland is thought to equal the Peak of Teneriffe; it is on the island Guadalcanal of Mendana. Their general fertility is denoted by the lofty trees that cover them to the summits of the mountains. Amongst their vegetables are noticed the bread fruit, and *brab* palm, and many species of trees affording aromatic gums. Fowls are abundant, and they seem to have hogs and dogs.

The natives of Port Praslin, as described by Surville, in no respect differ in appearance from those of New Guinea: they are equally savage as those of New Ireland, and even Bougainville supposes those of Port Choiseul to be cannibals, from having observed among them a human jaw-bone, with the flesh on it half roasted. Surville's people were

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Solomon's Islands.

were also of the same opinion from observing them have necklaces and bracelets of teeth, which they supposed to be human. The native seized by this latter navigator, however, denied the custom, with every mark of abhorrence.

Their canoes are formed of a single tree, and without outriggers, elegantly carved, and they usually join two together. From the account received by Surville from the native, it appears they were continually at war, and that their prisoners became the slaves of their conquerors. A plurality of wives is permitted. They are governed by a king, whose authority is unlimited, and whose revenue consists in a part of the produce of the fishing and hunting of his subjects. If one of them should chance to walk in his shadow, he is punished with death, unless he can purchase a pardon.

Like all other savages they are superstitious, and believe that the dead return to the earth to converse with their friends, and to inform them where are the best fishing spots, and to announce to them future events. They hold their physicians, who are all old men, in great respect.

Girls are betrothed in their infancy, and reside in the houses of their future husbands' father, till of an age to be married.

The dead bodies of the rich are placed on a scaffold, underneath which is a pit. When the flesh is separated from the bones and falls into this pit it is covered, and a shed or monument built over it; the bones are collected and thrown into a common

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mon burying place. The pit for a child is usually ornamented with flowers. Solomon's Islands.

Their canoes are navigated to the neighbouring islands by the assistance of the stars, of which they know a considerable number. It would appear even, that they have occasional communication with some of the more eastern islands in the Pacific, for Surville's native asserted, that his father often visited a nation of a much lighter complexion than that of his countrymen, and that he brought from it fine cloth, covered with designs.

They chew the betel, prepared in the same manner as to the westward, and with it use the winter bark. They light their huts at night with a resin which exudes from a tree bearing a nut like the almond (probably the kanary) which produces an agreeable odour in burning. They are unacquainted with metals, their implements being made of stone.

There are many islands to the north and east of Solomon's Islands, which, from their proximity and the similarity of their natives and productions, may be considered as forming part of the chain: to the north are,

The nine islands of Carteret (probably Ohang Java of Dampier). They are about fifteen leagues east of Sir Charles Hardy's Island, and extend fifteen leagues N.W. by W. and S.E. by E.; one only is of considerable size, the rest being very small and low; but they are all thickly inhabited.

Four

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Solomon's Islands.

Four islands, of Shortland, are twenty leagues north of Bougainville's Strait, and are probably those named Green Islands by Le Maire in 1616.

Lord Howe's group, a considerable cluster, thirty-two of which were counted in 1791, were probably seen by Le Maire, though he mentions but thirteen.

Gower Island of Carteret is fourteen miles in circumference, and is low and level: the west side is surrounded by a reef, and has no anchorage, but boats may land: probably Isle *Inattendue*, or Unexpected, of Surville.

Carteret and Simpson Island, ten leagues south of Gower Island; the former is five leagues long and tolerably high. Simpson's is two leagues east of it, seven miles long and three broad.

Stewart's Group, discovered by Captain Hunter in 1791, are five islands, probably seen by Le Maire in 1616.

Smith's Sirius and Shanks Islands, discovered by Lieutenant Ball in 1790, are north of the easternmost of the Solomon's Islands.

The isles Hunter, Pitt, and Bellona of Captain Hunter, form a small detached group, south of Solomon's Islands.

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NEW HOLLAND.

It would be neither instructive nor amusing to enter into a discussion of the question, whether the vast country named New Holland by the Dutch should be considered as a *continent*, or as the greatest island of the globe, and equally tiresome would it be to analyse the propriety of the names of Australia, Notasia, Terra Australis, &c. which have been proposed as more appropriate than that of New Holland for this vast region.

Although the Portuguese and Spaniards had discovered this land near a century before the visits of the Dutch, it is to the latter that we owe the first positive knowledge of it; and this knowledge was confined to the north and west coast, until Captain Cook traced its eastern side with an accuracy that left little to be performed by his successors. Since the voyage of this great navigator, the separation of Van Diemen's land has been ascertained by the enterprising Bass, and the voyages of D'Entrecastaux, Baudin, and Flinders, have completed the outline of the coasts.

The eastern coast, or New South Wales, commences at Cape York, in $10\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ south latitude, and terminates at Wilson's Promontory in Bass's Strait, in 39. 00. including an extent of 700

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leagues. A chain of mountains appears to run parallel to this coast, through its whole length, whose bases are from ten to thirty leagues from the sea. Until very recently all attempts to pass this natural barrier have been unsuccessful. It has, however, at last been overcome, and instead of the sandy deserts or the inland seas with which conjecture had occupied the interior, the discovery of beautiful meadows, watered by considerable rivers and by chains of ponds, has given to the colonists new prospects of extension and riches.

The coasts towards the south are in general elevated and covered with lofty trees. Towards the north they are lower, bordered with mangrove swamps and lined with a labyrinth of islets and coral reefs. The *Blue* Mountains which rise behind the seat of the colony, at the distance of thirty miles, are a mixture of primitive and secondary rocks, and have not yet been discovered to contain any metal.

The rivers which empty themselves on the east coast are few and of no magnitude in proportion to the extent of the country. The Hawkesbury, which is the most considerable, empties itself into Broken Bay, north of Port Jackson, and though deeply encased, it often overflows, and has several times swept away the buildings and corn magazines on its banks.

At Port Jackson the climate is nearly similar to that of the Cape of Good Hope. In December the heat is greatest, the thermometer sometimes rising

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rising to 112, and the grass has been known to take fire spontaneously. Short intervals of N.W. wind sometimes bring a degree of suffocating heat, equal to the sciroceo or kamsin, while at others, masses of ice eight inches long fall as hail. Tremendous storms, attended with thunder and lightning, have also occasionally occurred, and a shock of an earthquake was experienced in 1801. The climate is nevertheless extremely healthy, and in July and August, the winter of this hemisphere, the coolness of the air is invigorating and pleasant.

The principal trees met throughout New Holland are the *eucalyptus*, or gum tree, of various kinds, and the *casuarina*, or beef wood of the colonists of Port Jackson. With the exception of some bad roots and a few berries, nature seems to have denied this vast country any species of alimentary vegetable, but all those of Europe and many of the tropics have been introduced into the colony. The native dog excepted, all the quadrupeds discovered in New Holland approach the *didelphus* genus, by the pouch or sack formed of the skin of the belly, and in which their young take shelter when alarmed. The largest of these animals is the kangaroo, which grows to the length of five feet. A lesser species, named *Brush* kangaroo, is the size of the hare; and the little animal named kangaroo rat is only the bulk of the animal that serves to designate it. The *womat* is the size of a turnspit dog, and has some resemblance to the bear. The *tachyglossus*

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has the figure of the porcupine of Africa and the manner of feeding of the ant-eater of America. The amphibious mole, *ornithorincus*, is a very singular animal, having the jaws of a quadruped terminated by the bill of a duck, the feet webbed and with claws, and from the absence of breasts in the female, it is supposed to be oviparous; it is about sixteen inches long and lives in fresh water ponds. The flying opossum has its name from the long leaps it takes from tree to tree, and which it is enabled to do by the skin which unites the fore and hind legs on each side of the body. The native dog is of the jackal species, and never barks; though it follows the native, it is not to be entirely domesticated.

The birds, which are particularly deserving mention, are the cassowary or *emu*, the *menura superba*, a pheasant which unites the beauties of the bird of paradise and the peacock. Among the parrot tribe are many beautiful species, and particularly the large white and the black cockatoo. Aquatic birds are numerous, and among them are a gigantic pelican, some new species of geese and ducks, and the black swan, which is met in vast numbers towards the south. The other birds are the brown eagle, several species of falcons, crows, kingfishers, bustards, pigeons of several species, quails, curlews, herons, &c.

Lizards and snakes are met in abundance, and swarms of winged insects darken the air, particularly moths, of which the variety is endless.

The race of human beings that form the indi-

genous

genous population of New Holland are of the grand stock of *Oceanic Negroes*, having the hair frizzled but not woolly, the nose flat, nostrils large, mouth enormously wide, lips thick, and eyes hollow; the teeth are white and even, the sight extremely quick, the limbs disproportionately slender, doubtless from their miserable nourishment. In some the complexion is as black as the African Negro, while others are nearer a copper colour. Their thick bushy beards, and the bones and reeds they stick in their noses, give the men a horrible appearance, which is not improved by the daubing their faces with red or white clays, and anointing their bodies with stinking fish oil, which collecting the dust, forms a crust of filth that defies the sting of the musquito. Although they seem at times to feel very sensibly the chilliness of the air, they have no idea of any other cloathing than a few skins of dogs or opossums sewed together with which they cover their shoulders, and which are only used by the men, the women going entirely naked. In every other respect the New Hollanders seem to be the people under the sun who have made the least progress in civilization. The food of those who inhabit the coasts is confined to the fish they strike with their spears or which their women take with hook and line, and to the shell-fish they detach from the rocks at low water; an occasional dead whale also that drives ashore, affords them a feast, which they never quit until it is all devoured. Those who inhabit the woods subsist on the few

 opossums

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opossums and other animals they can catch, on wild honey, lizards, and worms.

Their huts are composed of branches of trees, shaped like an oven, the fire-place before the opening, while the smoke and ordures remain inside, and here they sleep *pell-mell* with their knees to their mouths. Their canoes are of bark tied at the ends and extended by cross sticks. Their weapons are spears pointed with bones of animals or fish, or with bits of spar, clubs and bucklers of bark. Their implements are a stone adze, their fishing-hooks of pearl-shell, and their lines of the inner bark of a tree.

Their societies consist of tribes of twenty to thirty individuals, who are distinguished by the word *gal* added to the name of the district they occupy; thus Botany Bay is called *Gwea*, and its tribe *Gwea-gal*. Polygamy is general, and the manner of procuring a wife is unparalleled in brutality. The man who fancies a girl watches until he finds her unprotected by any of her tribe, when he fells her to the ground with his club, and drags her bleeding and senseless to his hut; where the marriage is consummated in a manner too disgusting for description; and she afterwards follows him as his wife, without the smallest idea of escaping from the frequent repetition of the most barbarous treatment.

Among their singular customs is that of depriving the women of the two first joints of the little finger of the left hand. One tribe has also the right of extracting a front tooth from the young men

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men of other tribes; and recently women have been met with in the interior, with but one eye, being deprived of the other as it would appear intentionally.

The New Hollander's ideas of a future state extend to the belief, that after death they return to the clouds, from whence they originally dropped, an idea also found amongst the Alforezes of Ceram. They are the slaves of superstition, believing in magic, witchcraft, and spectres; hence they will not approach a grave. They also draw omens from falling stars, and have charms against thunder and lightning. The young people are buried, but warriors past the middle age are burned. The horrible custom also prevails of burying the suckling infant with its mother, and the fœtus is often destroyed in the womb; both which practices doubtless arise from the difficulty of rearing children. Nevertheless these savages are not entirely devoid of the feelings of human beings: they have been seen to weep over the graves of their friends or relations; they shew a high respect for old age; and they have not that irresistable propensity to thieving which marks the islanders of the Pacific.

The language of the tribes that inhabit the colony is sonorous and not disagreeable to the ear, but those who live both to the north and south have dialects radically different from each other, and from any known language.

About half a dozen of these savages only have shewed any inclination to industry, one of them

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having a spot of four acres cultivated, and the others serving on board the sailing vessels of the colony.

After the separation of the British American Colonies, England was at a loss where to send those criminals whom the law did not condemn to capital punishments, or whose sentence the sovereign mitigated, and whom it was neither expedient nor humane to keep shut up in the prisons of the country. The west coast of Africa, between Cape Negro and the Cape of Good Hope, was first thought of for this purpose, but on the recommendation of Sir Joseph Banks, New South Wales was fixed upon, and in 1788 the fleet with the persons intended to found the settlement arrived at Botany Bay; but this place being found ineligible, the Governor Philip made choice of Port Jackson, twelve miles farther north, which had been seen and named, but not examined by Captain Cook, and the infant town received the name of Sydney. Although in its infancy the colony had to contend against great difficulties, arising from the necessity of procuring every species of provision from England, and above all from the evil habits of the colonists, and latterly from the dissensions amongst the chief persons forming its government, nevertheless such is the force of the innate principle of man to better his condition, that in spight of every obstacle, the colony has *always* advanced, and has at last become nearly independent of the mother country for

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for the necessaries of life. Its improvement is indeed surprising, when it is recollected that on the arrival of the first colonists it did not possess one single object of those noticed in the following statement of its cultivation and live stock in 1809.*

Ground in cultivation 7,000	acres of wheat,
3,500	of maize,
530	of barley,
100	of oats,
100	of pease and beans
800	of potatoes
13	of turnips
554	of orchard and garden
34	of flax, hemp, and hops
12,127	

The prices of the articles of vegetable food were

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Wheat, per bushel	12	0	Strawberries, pr qt.	1	0
Maize	5	0	Mulberries	1	0
Oats	4	6	Cape goosberries	1	0
Potatoes, per cwt.	10	0	Native currants	1	0
Onions	20	0	Mushrooms	0	8
Turnips, per bunch	0	4	French beans	0	4
Carrots	0	6	Pease	1	0

Lemons,

* Man's present state of the colony.

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	s. d.		s. d.
Lemons, per doz. .	0 6	Water melons, each	0 9
Peaches.....	0 2	Musk melons	1 0
Apples.....	2 0	Cucumbers.....	0 1
Pears.....	3 0	Artichokes	0 6
Quinces.....	2 0	Pumpkins.....	0 6
Apricots	1 0	Cauliflowers	0 6
Figs.....	0 3	Cabbages.....	0 3

Besides these objects, the following are more or less plenty: oranges, raspberries, grapes, plums, almonds, pomegranates, limes, shaddocks, citrons, pineapples, nectarines, and guavas; spinach, beet-root, lettuces, radishes, horse-raddish, samphire, water-cresses, celery, endive, and other sallad herbs.

The live stock of the colony consisted of 1,000 horses and mares, 10,000 head of horned cattle,* 33,000 sheep, 12,000 goats, 20,000 hogs. Beef, mutton, and lamb, at the same period, were one shilling and three-pence per lb. and pork one shilling. Turkeys, each, ten shillings, geese eight shillings, ducks four shillings, fowls two shillings and sixpence, wild ducks two shillings, teal one shilling and three-pence, rabbits four shillings, pigeons, each, one shilling and three-pence, eggs one shilling and six-pence per dozen, butter six shillings

* On the first establishment of the colony a bull and a few cows had strayed from their pasture and were sought after in vain until 1795, when they were discovered at a considerable distance from the settled part of the colony, and greatly increased. A general and strict prohibition was immediately issued against their destruction; in consequence, they have since continued to multiply, and will in time probably overrun the country.

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shillings per lb., milk one shilling per quart. Fish is extremely abundant, as well as oysters and lobsters.

The manufactures of the colony, as may be supposed, are confined to the coarsest objects for the consumption of the lower class: they are blankets and rugs of the wool of the colony, linen from its hemp introduced from Europe, leather tanned by an indigenous bark, coarse earthen-ware, salt, and beer.

In 1811, the colonial shipping consisted of twenty-nine vessels, from 14 to 186 tons, chiefly employed in conveying coals from Coal River, corn from the Hawkesbury and George's River, and sealing among the islands in Bass's Strait.

The population of the colony in 1809 was 9,856, of whom upwards of 6,000 supported themselves, and the remainder were fed and cloathed at the public expense.

Port Jackson is an excellent harbour, entered between two high steep heads, and penetrating many miles, forming upwards of 100 coves. The only danger is a ledge of rocks across the entrance leaving a channel on each side, with four fathoms depth. Sydney Town is composed of several good houses of stone and brick, of the officers of government and chief free settlers; the habitations of the lower class are of wood, plaistered. The public buildings are a church, barracks, a jail, orphan school, a stone-bridge over a little creek which receives a small run of fresh water, and the government-house.

The

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The out settlements immediately dependent on Sydney are Paramatta at the head of the harbour, consisting of barracks, a government-house, church, and jail, with a street of dwelling-houses. The Greenhills or Hawkesbury, on the banks of the river of this name, consists of a large granary of brick, and a number of wooden dwelling-houses. An establishment was found in 1805 at Coal River, in Port Hunter, north of Port Jackson, which received the name of King's Town.

The topography of New Holland, after taking leave of the colony of Port Jackson, offers little more than a barren nomenclature. Commencing at Cape York, which forms the south side of Endeavour Strait of Cook, the coast trends S.E. to Cape Flattery, and then S.S.E. to Magnetic Island. South of Cape Flattery is Endeavour River, where Captain Cook observed alligators and oysters of an enormous size. The natives baked their victuals in holes in the ground. From Magnetic Island, named from the vacillation of the needle near it, the coast again takes a S.E. direction, to the Great Bay of Inlets of Cook, before which are many islands; and from the latitude of 17° to 23° a chain of coral reefs defends the coast from the attacks of the sea, and have been named by Captain Flinders Barrier Reefs. In Broad Sound the tide rises thirty or thirty-five feet. No fresh water was found on its shores and this necessary object is only found in stagnant pools in Shoal-water Bay, where Captain Flinders observed pummice stone washed up on the shore.

At

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At Port Bowen of this navigator the shore was found covered with a species of pine fit for masts. Keppel Bay of Cook, under the tropic, divides into many branches, but is filled with mud banks, and its shores are composed of mangrove swamps. It has a communication with Port Curtis, five leagues further south, by a channel insulating the land of Cape Capricorn of Cook. Port Curtis has barren shores, covered with loose stones: the trees are mangrove, *eucalyptus*, and *casuarina*. The eastern direction of the coast ends at Sandy Cape, the south point of Hervey Bay, where the huts of the natives were observed by Cook to be constructed with more solidity than to the south. Glass-house Bay was named from several hills behind it resembling those edifices. It receives some rivers, considerable in comparison with the scanty rills met on all the rest of the coast to the north; and pumice stone was found on its shores.

From Point Look-out the coast takes a direction to the west of south, and has no place of shelter to Port Stephens, where commences the immediate territory of the colony of Port Jackson, named Cumberland County. Port Stephens (*Yaca-aba* of the natives) is full of shoals, and only fit for small craft. Port Hunter (*Yohauba* of the natives) is fit for small ships, and receives a river, on whose banks are many veins of coals, as well as on an island before it. Broken Bay is a large expanse of water, dividing into many branches,

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branches, and receiving the river Hawkesbury, the most considerable of New Holland: it is navigable to the settlement at the Green Hills, ninety miles from the sea; but about twelve miles above this its bed is crossed by a bar of rocks.

South of Port Jackson the coast has been minutely explored, and found to possess the following places in succession. Botany Bay, thus named by Sir Joseph Banks, from the great variety of plants found on its shores: it is a large expanse of water, but so filled by banks as to afford no anchorage for ships, except exposed to the sea. Its shores are also in many places swampy. It receives George's River, of considerable size, on which are some farms, whose produce is sent by sea to Sydney.

Port Hacking (*Deeban* of the natives) is only fit for small craft; it receives some small streams. Shoal Haven, as its name denotes, is unfit for vessels of any size; and Jervis Bay, though with sufficient depth, is open to the sea. Barmouth Creek is a snug little port, whose entrance is crossed by a bar with only eight feet at high water. Twofold Bay is the most commodious of this coast, affording good shelter to small ships.

From Cape Howe the coast takes an abrupt westerly direction, trending about S.W. to Wilson's Promontory, in Bass's Strait. This promontory, which is the south point of New Holland, is a vast mass of granite, joined to the continent by a narrow low isthmus. Between it and Cape Howe the

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the shore presents an unbroken continuity of white sandy beach.

On the south coast of New Holland, in Bass's Strait, are Western Port and Port Philip. The former, discovered by Bass, has since been examined by Baudin, and found to contain two islands instead of one. It is a large basin, fit for the reception of ships of burden.

Port Phillip, discovered by Lieutenant Grant, is entered from a large bay, to which the English navigator gave the name of King, and the French that of Talleyrand. From an entrance only half a mile wide, Port Phillip expands to a basin 150 miles in circuit. Its shores are in general moderately elevated and sandy, but covered with wood, particularly the *casuarina*. Except a small river which it receives, it is almost totally destitute of fresh water, and hence the intention of forming an establishment here was abandoned.

From Cape Albany Otway (Cape Marengo of the French) the west point of Bass's Strait, the coast takes a direction to the north of west. The whole extent, from the 130° of longitude to Bass's Strait, was visited nearly at the same time by Captain Flinders and Baudin, the French navigator. The French, pretending a priority of discovery, have given this land the name of *Terre de Napoleon;* and to all its gulfs, promontories, and islands have assigned those of the usurper's family, or of their friends and patrons.*

From

* When the first volume of this work was sent to the press, the relation

From Cape Bridgewater (Montaigne) to the Gulf of St. Vincent (Bay Josephine) the coast is composed of sandy cliffs, and frightfully barren; though the number of smokes observed on it by the French navigators would seem to indicate its being well inhabited. The Gulf of St. Vincent is thirty leagues deep and eight to ten broad; before it is Kangaroo Island, of considerable size, and abounding in kangaroos, some weighing 125 pounds. It is covered with wood, and seems to have a good soil, but is without fresh water.

Spencer's Gulf (Gulf Bonaparte) is separated from that of St. Vincent by a peninsula named York by Captain Flinders, and Cambaceres by the French: it is seventy leagues deep and ten to twenty.

of the voyage of Captain Flinders had not been published. It appears that his researches commenced at the S.W. point of New Holland, which he named Cape Leeuwin, and were carried on along the south and east coasts into the Gulf of Carpentaria, from whence he proceeded for refreshments to Timor; and from this island, after looking in vain for the Tryal Rocks, returned to Cape Leeuwin without examining any part of the west coast. On his return to Port Jackson his ship, *the Investigator*, being found so decayed as to be unfit to prosecute the intended researches, was condemned, and Captain Flinders and his crew embarked on board his Majesty's ship Porpoise to return to England; but the vessel was wrecked on a reef east of New Holland, from whence Captain F. returned in an open boat to Port Jackson, and the crew were subsequently taken off the reef by vessels from that colony.

The examination of Captain Baudin included the west and south coast of New Holland, on which latter he did not arrive until the 30th March, 1802; while Captain Flinders commenced his examination at Cape Leeuwin the 7th December, 1801. The English navigator has, therefore, the indubitable claim to priority of discovery. We have, however, in the text given the synonymous French and English names attached to the principal points on the south coast, as useful in the perusal of the relations of the two voyages.

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twenty-five broad, and terminates in a mangrove swamp. Near the entrance of the gulf, on the west shore, is Port Lincoln (Champagny) an excellent harbour, formed by three basins, whose entrance is covered by an island: its shores are elevated and clothed with wood, but it is without running water; this article is, however, to be procured by digging wells. Off Cape Catastrophe (Cape Brun) is the little archipelago of Neptune Islands (La Place) which may be seen ten leagues. Before Anxious Bay (Louis Bay) are several islands, of which the largest is named Flinders (Josephine). The base of this island is granite, with a calcareous summit, and between these two a stratum of sand stone, twenty feet thick. The same formation of granite and calcareous rock also generally pervades the archipelago of Nuyts, two clusters of islands, near the head of the gulf, formed by the curvature of the S.W. coast of New Holland, named by Captain Flinders the *Great Australian Bight*.

The coast which forms the west shore of the Australian Bight was discovered by Nuyts, in 1627. From the head of the bight to the longitude 123° it is composed of sandy cliffs, from 400 to 600 feet high, forming a level platform, with very few trees, and beyond which inland nothing is visible from the sea. On this singular line of cliffs, Captain Flinders observes, "that the equality of elevation, and the evidently calcareous nature, seem to bespeak it to have been the *exterior* line of a vast coral reef, which is always more elevated

Nuyts' Land.

vated than the interior part. From the gradual subsiding of the sea, or perhaps by a sudden convulsion of nature, this bank may have attained its present height above the surface of the sea; and on this supposition, together with the fact of no hill or elevation being seen within it, it may be presumed that in that direction there is either a low sandy plain, or the bank may be a barrier separating the external from an internal sea." Towards the west extremity of the cliffy bank some craggy hills are seen inland; and here commences a chain of scattered islands, extending to the west to the 121°, named by d'Entrecastaux Archipel de Recherche, and whose formation is granite, with quartz and feldtspath, mixed with mica, towards the base, with horizontal calcareous strata, without shells, at the top. The coast is either low and sandy, or formed of sandy downs. Behind the Lucky Bay of Flinders is a fresh water lake, a mile in extent, communicating with the sea by a rivulet. The coast continues low and sandy, with some intervals of barren hills, apparently granite, to *King George the Third's Sound* of Vancouver.

King George the Third's Sound is a large gulf, with two good ports. The shores are composed of perpendicular cliffs, or sand hills, behind which, in the interior, rise high mountains, whose white and elevated summits resemble vast edifices in ruins; and that named Mount Gardner has the appearance of being a volcano. On some of the promontories perfect coral is found, at the height of 1,000 feet above the sea. Spots of chalky soil, granite, quartz,

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quartz, and marsh covered with an ochery turf, are found here.

The S.W. part of New Holland is named in the maps Leeuwin, or Lion's Land, from the Dutch ship that first visited it in 1660. Cape Leeuwin is the S.W. point of New Holland. The Bay de Géographe has marshy shores and salt lagoons, but no fresh water. Here the savages seemed to have formed regular plantations of trees, possibly for religious purposes. *Lion's Land.*

The land of Edels comprehends the middle of the west coast. Swan River, in 32° 4′, was ascended by the French twenty leagues, and found to run through a low country, traversed by calcareous strata, and covered with large *eucalyptus*. A noise, which appeared to be that of a great animal, was heard from among the reeds in the river; and it is worthy of remark that Dampier found the skeleton of a hippopotamus near his Shark's Bay. North of Swan River the coast is moderately elevated, without fresh water, and lined with islands and reefs; among which are Rottennest Island and Houtman's Abrolhos. The ants here build great hills resembling cabins. *Edel's Land.*

Endracht, or Concord Land, extends along the northern part of the west coast, under the tropic. *Concord Land.*

The Shark's Bay of Dampier is surrounded by sandy shores, but wooded. Dampier mentions seeing here rabbits with very short fore legs, evidently the kangaroo. The French naturalists observed that these coasts are covered with petrified shells, and that the incrustations *calcareo-gresous*

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formed with such astonishing rapidity, that even the excrements of animals were covered with them. The peninsula of Peron divides Shark's Bay into two gulfs, both forming good roads, but devoid of fresh water.

De Witt's Land.

De Witt's Land includes all the N.W. part of New Holland, and is the least explored. The points seen by Dampier are composed of sandy downs, with fir trees (doubtless the *Casuarina*) and no water. The savages were observed to have lost two of the front teeth. Cape Murat of the French is the Cape William of the Dutch. South of it is a little river, and on the north a gulf twenty leagues wide with many islands. Capes Poivre, Malouet, and Dupuy, in 20½° form a great promontory, between which and Rosemary Island, one of the archipelago of Dampier, the coast is entirely unexplored. Between the longitudes of 116° and 120° the coast is straight and little elevated. Before it is the archipelago Forrestière, one island of which, named Depuch, is composed of basaltic columns. The banks of the Geographe are very extensive, and the isle Bedout is twenty leagues from the main.

About the 121° there is an opening not examined, twenty-six leagues in breadth, from whence the coast extends to the N.W. and north. It is not certain whether Cape Missiessy in 19° 12′, and Cape Villaret in 18° 19′, are on an island or the continent. From Cape Huygens in 17° 38′, the coast lays north. Near the cape is Gantheaume island, of considerable size. North of Cape

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Cape Bartholet, in 17° 10′, is an unexamined opening; before which are the islands Lacepède and Carnot. From Cape Borda to Cape Rhulière, 18° 52′, the coast lays N.E. without any appearance of opening. In this extent is isle Adele in 15° 27′, beyond which is the archipelago Bonaparte, presenting the most sterile and irregular appearance, as if mountains had tumbled from the heavens on other mountains, their white heads forming domes, or vast cubes: they are without inhabitants.

From Cape Rhulière to Cape Van Diemen, in 11° 10′, the coast forms a great gulf to the S.E. and the land of De Witt terminates at the latter Cape.

The land of Arnheim extends from Cape Van Diemen to the gulf of Carpentaria. In Van Diemen's Bay on this coast, the sea is said to be occasionally luminous, and from hence this phenomenon probably spreads into the Banda sea, as already noticed. Further east the Dutch charts mark Difficult Bay, which receives the River Speult, and before which is Crocodile Island. Arnheim Land.

The Gulf of Carpentaria in the old Dutch charts presents such a number of rivers, that it was generally considered as receiving almost all the fresh waters of New Holland. Captain Flinders, who sailed entirely round it, found that not one of these supposed rivers has any existence; but on the contrary, that fresh water is generally more scarce here than even on the east coast. The western side of the gulf is moderately Gulf of Carpentaria.

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elevated and lined by chains of considerable islands, while the eastern coast presents a continuity of very low sandy shores, entirely free from islands. The principal trees are the *eucalyptus* and *casuarina*.

The first considerable bay on the west shore is that of Arnheim, before which are the Wessels and English Company's Islands, composed of sterile hills, but with vallies, through which run streams of fresh water, and in which are found the wild nutmeg and cabbage palm. These islands are visited by Malay proas from Timor and Macassar to procure trepang. Groot Island, of the Dutch charts, named Busching by the German geographers, is before Limmen's Bight. Sir Edward Pellew's Islands, farther south, abound in the cabbage palm and kangaroos; and Wellesley's Group, the last towards the head of the gulf, are frequented by innumerable green turtle.

The natives seen by Captain Flinders in the Gulf, differed in no respect from those of Port Jackson, except in having lost *two* of the upper front teeth, and in being circumcised. A curious fact in the history of these savages, unless it is supposed that they have adopted this practice from the Mahometan Malays who visit the gulf, which is not, however, probable. The canoes of these people are composed of strips of bark, whose edges overlay each other and are sowed together.

Off the west coast of New Holland are some dangers,

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dangers, of which, though certainly existing, the situations are still unascertained: such are the Tyral rocks between 19½° and 21° of latitude, and Cloates Island, in about 22°; and between Timor and New Holland is a dangerous reef, in about 14° of latitude, and longitude 122°.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND is separated from New Holland by Bass's Strait, thirty leagues wide. In the eastern entrance is a group of islands, named after Captain Furneaux, the companion of Cook; the passage between them and Van Diemen's Land being named Banks' Strait. These islands are entirely composed of an opaque quartz; they produce the eucalyptus and other trees, and abound in kangaroos and seals, and the womat is also found on them.

In the western entrance of the strait are King and Hunter's Islands; the former of considerable size, and much frequented by the seal hunters from Port Jackson. The other islands in the strait are barren rocks.

Van Diemen's Land is seventy-five leagues long, east and west, and sixty leagues broad. The face of the country is finely diversified with hills and vallies, and well watered with rivers and lakes. Many of the promontories, particularly on the south, are composed of basaltic columns, sometimes single at others grouped; while the

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mountains are principally calcareous with shells, and on some of their sides veins of coals have been found. In general the mountains are covered with forests of lofty trees, in which the eucalyptus predominates, and grows to an enormous size. The kangaroos here burrow in the earth like rabbits; the hooded seal abounds on the islands and rocks; and the black swan, wild geese and ducks, cover the bays. The climate, as may be expected, is colder than that of New South Wales, the snow remaining on the summits of the mountains in May; nevertheless, the N.W. winds bring with them the same burning heat as at Port Jackson.

According to the French navigators, the natives of Van Diemen's Land differ entirely from those of New Holland, and have a great resemblance to those of New Caledonia. Their hair is woolly and their skin not naturally very dark, but its blackness is increased by rubbing it with charcoal powder. Some of them were also observed to be tatooed and to have their hair powdered with ochre. They go entirely naked, and in every other respect are as savage as the New Hollanders.

The north coast of Van Diemen's Land is generally barren and inhospitable. The environs of Port Dalrymple, however, are covered with fine forests and luxuriant herbage. This port is at the mouth of a considerable river, named the Tamar, which is formed by two streams, called the north and south Esk. It resembles a chain

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a chain of lakes, being bounded on each side by hills, which alternately approach and recede. It is navigable for vessels of 150 tons up to the junction of the two Esks, where is situated the new settlement of Launceston.

Some openings on the west coast appear to be the mouths of rivers, but have not been explored.

On the south coast, the River Derwent empties itself into the Storm Bay of Tasman, and on it is the settlement of Hobart, founded in 1804; between which and Launceston, on the Tamar, a communication has been opened by land quite through the island.

New South Wales being within the limits of the East India Company's charter, private individuals were interdicted trading between it and England, and a ship that infringed this prohibition and brought a cargo of seal oil to London, was seized by the Company's officers: hence the only markets open to the colony are China and India; from the latter two or three ships generally arrive every year, with India and Europe goods, for which they receive bills on England. The transport ships that take out convicts, also carry out investments from England, and the South Sea whalers, both American and English, frequently put into Port Jackson to refit, and take off the oil and skins collected by the seal hunters. The only other commercial object the colony yet possesses, is the wood of the *casuarina*, which is manufactured into various articles of cabinet ware. In 1811 twenty-nine ships entered Port Jackson from England, India, and from the whale fisheries.

Norfolk

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Norfolk Island, 1000 miles east of New Holland, is five leagues in circuit: it was discovered and named by Captain Cook in 1774, at which time it was uninhabited, but the soil being fertile an establishment was formed on it from Port Jackson in 1788. It was covered with lofty trees of the pine species, and creeping vines, and abounded with the New Zealand flax. Almost the whole island was cleared and cultivated, producing wheat, sugar-cane, and all the fruits and vegetables carried from Port Jackson, but having no harbour, nor even any safe landing place, being lined by coral reefs, with a violent surf, and being of no utility to the colony, it was evacuated in 1805.

Lord Howe's Island discovered by Lieutenant Ball, is about three leagues in circuit, rising to two hills on the S.E. that may be seen twenty leagues: quantities of pummice-stone were observed on it; it has no fresh water; its vegetables are cabbage palms, mangrove, bamboo, and several small plants; large pigeons, paroquets, and other land birds were met on it; and it is frequented by great numbers of green turtle. There is anchorage and landing on the S.W. side within a reef. Three leagues from the S.E. side of the island is a conical rock, named Ball's Pyramid, and other rocks are scattered in the vicinity. Sir Charles Middleton's Island of Shortland, is six leagues long, N.N.W. and S.S.E. and rises in an elevated peak. An extensive shoal lays thirty leagues S.W. of the island.

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OF THE

COMMERCE

OF

THE INDIAN SEAS.

In the following notices of the Commerce of the Indian Seas, we shall confine ourselves to *generalities*, which can alone be interesting to the great majority of readers, and we shall also give the results in round lacks of rupees, which the reader can easily convert into pounds sterling, the lack being nearly £11,000.

It is also proper to premise, that the East-India Company finding the trade between England and India quite sufficient to employ its trading capital, have for many years entirely relinquished that from port to port in India, or what is called the *country* trade, to private merchants residing in India. The coasting trade is almost exclusively in the hands of natives, whose various singularly constructed vessels are named dows, doneys, dingys, trankeys, patemars, &c. With respect to the trade between England and India, it was entirely prohibited to any but the Company and its officers until 1793, when on the renewal of the Company's

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Company's charter for twenty years, individuals were allowed to participate in the trade, under certain circumstances; and on the late renewal of the charter, it was permitted to private individuals to trade direct from any port of the British islands to places within the limits of the Company's charter, under certain regulations, and to import India merchandize into such ports of England as shall be deemed fit by his Majesty's council. The exclusive trade to China is, by the same Act of Parliament, continued in the East-India Company. By ancient custom, the commanders and officers of the Company's ships are permitted to occupy a certain tonnage in their respective ships, and the investments they carry out and bring home constitute what is called *privilege* trade.

EAST COAST OF AFRICA.

When the Portuguese doubled the Cape of Good Hope, they found the Arabs established on the east coast of Africa, carrying on a regulated and considerable trade, in their own vessels, with India, and exchanging their gold-dust for the manufactures of Hindostan and the spices of the East. The Portuguese become masters of the navigation of the Indian Seas and lords of Africa, monopolized the trade of the latter, and from it drew a great portion of the riches that supported the splendour of their eastern empire. Though the commerce of this region necessarily diminished with

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with the power of the Portuguese, it nevertheless has continued to be considerable; the objects of export being gold-dust, teeth of the elephant and hippopotamus, ambergris, tortoise-shell, amber, cowries, wax, columba root, and slaves. Mosambique, the chief establishment of the Portuguese, is also the emporium of the commerce of this coast, where the products of the south and north are collected ready for the four or five annual ships that arrive from Goa. The quantity of gold furnished by the mines of Sofala, or brought by the natives from the interior, is estimated at one million and a half sterling. The number of slaves formerly exported to the Cape of Good Hope, Isle of France, Goa, Batavia, and Spanish and Portuguese South America, was 10,000, but the abolition of the slave trade by England has reduced the export to 4,000, and confined it to America. The returns from India are piece goods, iron, copper, and objects of domestic consumption and use, as spirits, tobacco, glass and china-ware, &c.

Though Mosambique is under the strictest colonial system of prohibition to foreigners, it is visited by many British ships from India, who never fail to dispose of their cargoes advantageously. The commerce of Europeans with the east coast of Africa extends between Delagoa Bay on the south, and Magadoxa on the north. Between the former and the territory of the Cape, and between the latter and Cape Guardafui, there is no trade.

The

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The island of Socotra has long ceased to be visited by Europeans, but the Arabs convey its aloes and dragon's blood to the trading ports of Arabia. West of Cape Guardafui, the Samaulies, inhabiting the coast of the Gulf of Socotra, carry on a considerable trade with Aden and Mocha from the ports of Berbera and Zeila. At the first of these places an annual fair is held from October to April, during which period successive caravans arrive from the interior with gold dust, ivory, gum-arabic, myrrh, frankincense, ostrich feathers, slaves, horses, mules, and asses, for which they take in exchange the piece goods of India, dates, metals, cutlery, sugar, and spices. This trade is chiefly in the hands of the Banyans of Mocha and Aden.

THE RED SEA.

We have already noticed * that a considerable portion of the trade between India and Europe was carried on through the Red Sea, until the subjection of Egypt by the Saracens in the seventh century; and afterwards from the middle of the thirteenth century until the beginning of the sixteenth, when the Portuguese made themselves masters of its navigation.

The commercial relations of the different states

on

* Page 103 of this volume.

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on the shores of this sea, were also considerable in the middle ages, and Aden was long one of the most flourishing commercial cities of the east, resisting even the victorious arms of the Portuguese, who, in 1513, made an unsuccessful attack on it. In 1538 the Turks, however, made themselves masters of it, but were driven out in their turn by the King of Yemen, who transferred the commerce of his dominions to Mocha.

The only productions the countries bordering on the Red Sea afforded, in the early ages, for foreign commerce, were myrrh, frankincense, and other drugs; but this scarcity of objects was more than compensated by the introduction of coffee into Arabia towards the close of the fifteenth century. This berry is said to be indigenous only in Upper Ethiopia, and its antisoporific property is supposed to have been discovered by an Arab dervise, who found that the use of it kept off the drowsiness which prevented the regular performance of his nocturnal devotions. From this discovery its use was spread rapidly throughout the Mahometan countries by the pilgrims, and it was first imported into England from the Levant in 1652.

This berry is chiefly cultivated in the district of Betelfackia, thirty leagues north of Mocha, from which port, together with those of Loheia and Hodeida, it is principally exported. The annual export of coffee was estimated by Raynal at only twelve to thirteen millions of pounds, but data, more to be depended on, make it near fifty millions,

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millions, of which Europeans take off from one to two millions: twelve millions are sent to Suez, a considerable part of which finds its way into Europe from the Levant; the remainder is consumed in India, Persia, Arabia, and the east coast of Africa.

The different European companies trading to India had formerly resident factors at Mocha, and their vessels were sent thither directly from Europe, with specie, iron, lead, and copper, to exchange for coffee; but when the cultivation of this berry had extended in the American colonies, the coffee of Mocha being unable to support the competition, the resident factors were withdrawn, and this branch of commerce was new modelled.

The English company at first sent two ships annually from Bombay to Mocha, but latterly it has been usual to agree with the country ships, trading from India to the Red Sea, to bring back the coffee purchased for the Company by its agents at Mocha, and which is re-shipped on board the Company's ships at Bombay for Europe.

The following are the quantities of coffee exported by Europeans from Mocha between 1795 and 1802.

1795	2154 bales of 305lbs. of which the East India Company took 2100 bales.	
1796	.....	2,000
1797	130	
1798	72	
1799	1866	
1800	6,441	1,000
1801	1,340	716

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In 1803 the first American vessel appeared in the Red Sea, and purchased a cargo of coffee at Mocha, which turned out so profitable that she was succeeded by many others, by which the quantity of coffee sent to Suez has been greatly reduced.

The exports of Mocha, exclusive of coffee, are considerable in gum arabic, myrrh, and frankincense, brought from the country of the Samaulies. Many other drugs, the produce of Arabia, are exported, as well as dates, salep, and sharks' fins. The drugs are chiefly sent to Suez, from whence they find their way into Europe through the Levant.

The Arabs of Mocha trade in their own vessels, named dows, to the east coast of Africa, south of Cape Guardafui, from whence they procure the same objects as from the Samaulies, together with amber; to the opposite coast of Abyssinia, from whence they bring ivory, slaves, camels, horses, asses, mules, and sheep; to the Gulf of Persia, where they procure dried dates, tobacco, and some wheat. The whole of these imports are paid for in the objects they receive from India, such as rice, spices, sugar, iron, lead, copper, specie, cotton and silk manufactures, coir cordage, &c. The trade between the Europeans and Arabs of the Red Sea is carried on through the medium of Hindoo Banyans, residing at Judda and Mocha.

Two or three India country ships usually visit Judda every year, and in return for their merchandize

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chandize receive some drugs, but are principally paid in specie and gold dust. The former comes to Judda from the Mediterranean, or is brought thither by the pilgrims, each of whom is bound by his religion to purchase five pieces of cotton cloth, and get them blessed at the holy city, to serve as shrouds for himself and family.*

Suez had formerly from six to ten large ships, which sailed from Judda between January and May, loaded with pilgrims, corn, and the merchandize of the Mediterranean. Cossire also exports a great quantity of corn; the annual amount of this object sent from Egypt to Arabia being at least 20,000 tons.

In 1775 Mr. Hastings, then governor-general of India, concluded a treaty with the preponderating Bey of Egypt, by which the English were allowed freely to transport Indian produce across Egypt, paying six and a half per cent. on that of Bengal and Madras, and eight per cent. on that of Bombay and Surat. This trade was beginning to flourish, when the jealousy of the East India Company put a stop to it; and by an act of parliament, in 1782, the subjects of Great Britain were prohibited from trading to Suez.

On

* The *holy* cities of Mecca and Medina fell into the hands of the Wahabees in 1803 and 1804; and, with the usual fanaticism of sectarists, the tomb of the prophet, and all the other religious buildings, were levelled with the ground.

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On the east coast of Arabia, from Aden to Cape Rasalgat, there is no trade by Europeans and very little by natives.

THE PERSIAN GULPH.

It has been already seen,* that the Portuguese, when they had made themselves masters of the navigation of the Persian Gulf, put an entire stop to its trade with India.

When the Dutch gained the ascendancy in the East, this trade was again renewed, and continued more or less flourishing until the revolutions and distractions of Persia which succeeded the death of Nadir Shah, again almost annihilated it.

In consequence of these troubles, all the European merchants, settled in the interior of Persia, retired to Bender-Abassi or Gombroon, on the Gulph, where they established factories. That of the English was destroyed by the French in 1757, and since then the only establishment the English have retained in Persia is at Bushire, where the company still have a resident, more for political than commercial purposes.

When Bussora came under the Turkish dominion, the various nations of Europe were permitted to establish factories there, and until the middle of the eighteenth century, this port remained the immediate entrepot of the com-

* Page 107 of this volume.

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merce between India and the Mediterranean. At this period, Muscat having received a stable government, and being declared a free port, the merchants of India found it more advantageous to dispose of their goods there, than convey them in their own vessels to Bussora; the whole trade of the Gulph in the first instance, therefore, centered at Muscat, and Bussora is now seldom visited by the vessels of Europeans except to procure horses. From Muscat the Arabs convey in their own vessels to all parts of the Gulph, and principally to Bussora, the merchandize they thus procure from India.

The imports from India to the Persian Gulph are silk and cotton mixed manufactures of Surat; longcloths, &c. of Coromandel; muslins of Bengal; silks of Bengal and China; pepper, sandal wood, and cardamums of Malabar; sugar of Bengal, Batavia, and China; rice of Bengal and Coromandel; spices of Ceylon and the Moluccas; indigo, drugs, iron, lead, and woollens of Europe through India. The whole amount of these imports is estimated at near a million sterling, of which the English furnish two-thirds, and the Moors of India, the Armenians, and the Arabs, the rest.

About the half of the objects imported are supposed to be consumed in the interior of Persia, a small part in Arabia, and the rest find their way to Europe from Bussora; the merchandize which can afford this last expensive conveyance being muslins,

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muslins, silks, spices, and drugs, together with the coffee of Arabia.

These articles being collected at Bussora are conveyed to Hellé, on the Euphrates, and from thence by land to Bagdad; this route being generally preferred because the Euphrates is much more easily ascended than the Tigris. On quitting Bussora, all merchandize belonging to the natives of India of every description pays a duty of seven and a half per cent, and that belonging to Europeans three per cent. On entering Bagdad, the native merchants pay eight and a half per cent. upon *merchandize* of *weight*, and five on precious merchandize: the former includes the metals, coffee, tobacco, sugar, pepper, &c.; and the latter of all kinds of cloth of whatever nature. The Europeans pay three per cent. on all goods indifferently.

There are no duties on quitting Bagdad, from whence the merchandize is conveyed to Aleppo by two routes, the first follows the direction of the Tigris by Kerkouk, Erbil, and Mossul, where the river is crossed, and thence to Nisibis, Merdin, and Aleppo. The second route follows the windings of the Euphrates by Hit and Mesched, where it quits the river and crosses the desert to Aleppo.

The returns from the Mediterranean to the Gulph are specie, with which Turkey pays for nearly the whole of the Indian goods she consumes. Copper of Asia Minor and gall-nuts, satins, velvets, and brocades of France; French

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Languedoc woollens, called londrins, which being lighter and cheaper than the English broad-cloths are preferred in Persia; needles, of which a great quantity is sent to Persia; iron in bars, steel, brass and iron wire, Venice glass, cochineal, wrought coral, yellow amber, white and red lead, &c.

The merchandize for Bussora pay no tolls on quitting Bagdad, either by the Tigris or Euphrates, but on entering Bussora all merchandize pays seven and a half per cent., and five per cent. on quitting it for India or Persia.

The productions of Arabia and Persia sent from the Gulph to India, are copper, sulphur, tobacco, madder, gall-nuts, dates, and other dried and preserved fruits, rose-water, horses, and all the drugs which India does not produce, particularly gum arabic, myrrh, and frankincense. The value of all these articles is not above the quarter of those which the Gulph receives from India, and the deficiency is paid in the specie and merchandize received from the Mediterranean.

The commerce between India and Europe, by the Persian Gulph, would certainly be much more considerable than it is, were the various dangers and obstacles which exist removed: these are, principally, the Gulph being infested by pirates, the heavy duties in the transit from Bussora to Bagdad, and the risque the caravans run of being plundered in the route by the wandering Arabs. The only advantage, however, that the route by the Persian Gulph possesses over that by

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by the Red Sea, is in the shorter navigation from India to Bussora, than to Suez; but this is more than counterbalanced by the greater length and difficulty of the conveyance by land. The desert to be crossed from Bagdad to the Mediterranean is 200 leagues, while that from Suez to Cairo is only eighty leagues; and again, the navigation by the Euphrates from Bussora to Bagdad is 100 leagues, while that by the Nile from Cairo to Alexandria is only forty.

The Gulph of Persia has been celebrated for its pearl fishery from the earliest ages. The richest banks were formerly in the vicinity of the Isle of Ormus, Karack, and Kasha, but these are entirely exhausted, and those in the neighbourhood of the Isle of Bahrein are now alone productive. The fishery commences in April and lasts till August. The pearls are yellower than those of Manar or Japan, but larger than the former, and better shaped than the latter; the most perfect are sent to India, and the refuse to Constantinople. According to Raynal, the value of the pearls annually fished in the Gulph is £150,000 sterling. The divers are Persians bred to the business from their youth, and the one-third of the produce of the fishery is paid to the sovereign either in kind or in money. The boats return to the shore at a certain hour, where the oysters are opened in the presence of an officer, and the pearls found in them are carried to the sovereign's collector, who receives the duty, if paid in kind, or the money in lieu, and the

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remainder belongs to the owner of the boat. The shells are the property of the divers.

The trade of the south coast of Persia is entirely in the hands of natives, chiefly Arabs, whose trading dows principally visit Posmee and Chewdabad, exchanging the rice and ghee of Scindy for the hides, cotton, &c. which are brought from the interior by caravans. The trade of Scindy is also in the hands of natives, who convey to Bombay, Surat, and Muscat, the cotton of the province, and the objects brought by caravans from Cabul and Candahar, consisting of almonds, cummin, ghee, grain, hides, oil, and piece goods; and take in return sugar, areca-nut, piece goods of Coromandel, metals, and specie. Crotchey and Tatta are the principal trading places, and the extent of the trade is averaged at (including the Gulf of Cutch)

Exports twenty lacks of rupees, of which fifteen lacks for cotton.

Imports fourteen lacks of rupees, of which five and a half lacks for sugar.

The south coast of the Guzerat being occupied by pirates, has little trade. From Cambay, Bombay receives by native vessels a great quantity of piece goods of Amedabad, raw cotton, corn, and cornelians. The extent of the trade is, exports to British India seventy lacks of rupees, of which cotton for forty-five lacks, piece goods and grain for nine lacks each. The imports amount to fifty lacks

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lacks, of which sugar and jagree for eleven lacks, piece goods of Coromandel for eight, raw silk of Bengal for seven, and cocoa-nuts for three lacks.

Surat has an extensive trade, both by European country ships and by native vessels, with Bombay and Madras, and with the Red Sea and Persian Gulf. With the two former the extent of this commerce is: exports, twenty lacks of rupees, of which raw cotton for ten lacks, and piece goods, called Surats, for eight lacks. The imports are twenty-four lacks, of which raw silk for six lacks, sugar for three lacks, and piece goods of Coromandel for two lacks. To the Red Sea the amount of exports is three lacks, and two lacks and a half to the Persian Gulf.

MALABAR COAST.

The principal productions of the Malabar coast for commerce are pepper, sandal wood, teek timber, rice, areca-nuts, cocoa-nuts, arrack, cardamums, cocculus indicus, nux vomica, &c. Bombay is the grand emporium of the west of India, Persia, and Arabia, where the productions of all these countries are exchanged against each other and for the merchandise of Europe. Besides European merchants, a great number of Parsees, Armenians, Portuguese, Hindoo and Mahometan traders, reside here. For the sake of clearness we shall divide the commerce of Bombay under different heads; and 1st of its western commerce, including

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including the Malabar coast, Guzerat, Cutch and Scindy, the Persian Gulf and Red Sea.

From Bassein and the adjacent country Bombay receives for about four lacks of rupees in grain, and gives in return the same value in piece goods. To Goa and the Concan the exports from Bombay are piece goods, grain, and raw silk for five lacks each, sugar for three lacks, woollens and drugs one lack each, and sundries for twenty lacks, making the exports forty lacks. The imports of pepper, &c. amount to eleven lacks.

To the Malabar coast proper Bombay sends for six lacks, chiefly in European objects of domestic consumption, and receives for eighteen lacks in copra, cocoa-nuts, pepper, sandal wood, piece goods, and areca nuts for two lacks each, and sundries eight lacks.

To Surat Bombay sends for twenty lacks; of raw silk six lacks, piece goods three, sugar three lacks, and sundries eight lacks; and imports nearly the same value, in cotton ten lacks, and piece goods eight lacks.

To the Guzerat Bombay sends for fifty lacks, in piece goods, sugar, &c. and receives for seventy lacks in corn, cotton, &c.

To Cutch and Scindy the exports are twelve lacks; of which five lacks in sugar and jagree; raw silk, pepper, and piece goods one lack each. The imports are twenty-two lacks, in cotton, rice, ghee, and horses.

To the Persian Gulf Bombay exports for eighteen lacks; of which piece goods for eleven lacks,

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lacks, sugar for three lacks, and grain for one lack; and receives from thence for ten lacks; of which horses for four lacks, dates and lametta one lack each.

To the Red Sea, Bombay and Surat export for sixteen lacks of rupees, chiefly in grain and piece goods, and receive for two lacks and a half in coffee and drugs.

The second division of the trade of Bombay, or its eastern commerce, includes Ceylon, the Coromandel coast, Bengal, Pegu, the Malay Archipelago and China.

To Ceylon Bombay sends for half a lack of grain and horses, and imports one lack, chiefly in arrack.

To the Coromandel Coast the exports are horses, grain, dates, and piece goods of Surat for one lack and a half; and the imports, principally in long cloths, balances the trade.

To Bengal Bombay sends for three lacks, chiefly in horses, drugs, copper, and piece goods; and receives from thence for sixty lacks, in raw silk, sugar, piece goods, and grain. Bombay and Surat draw from sixty to eighty lacks of rupees a year in specie from Bengal.

The trade between Bombay and Pegu is confined to the import of a few thousand rupees worth of teak timber.

To Prince of Wales's Island Bombay sends *occasionally* for from two to three lacks of cotton, to be transferred thence to China; and receives for five lacks in benjamin, pepper, and spices.

Formerly

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Formerly Bombay supplied all the western part of India with the sugar of Batavia; but latterly the Bengal sugar has entirely superseded it, and the trade with Batavia is confined to the import of some arrack and spices, for about four lacks of rupees a year.

The China trade is the most valuable to Bombay, in the great quantity of cotton it takes off, amounting annually to from twenty to thirty millions of pounds, or from sixty to seventy lacks of rupees. The other exports are sandal wood and sharks' fins for two lacks and a half each. The imports from China do not exceed thirty lacks; in sugar and sugar-candy for eight lacks, nankin four lacks, raw silk two lacks, camphire two lacks, tutenague one lack, porcelain one lack, sundries twelve lacks. The balance brings from twenty to thirty lacks of rupees in specie annually to Bombay.

The trade of Bombay to the Laccadivas, Maldivas, Mosambique, Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales, taken together, does not exceed in exports two lacks, and about three lacks for imports.

The third branch of the commerce of Bombay is that with Europe.

The exports from Bombay to London as *private* trade amount to six lacks and a half of rupees, of which five lacks in cotton. The imports amount to fourteen lacks; in wines and spirits two lacks, copper one lack, and wearing apparel one lack; the remainder is chiefly in objects of domestic consumption,

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sumption, as provisions, stationary, jewellery, watches, cutlery, hardware, &c. The balance of this trade against Bombay is paid in England by bills remitted from India.

The trade between Bombay and the foreign countries of Europe is inconsiderable, and chiefly confined to Lisbon; whither are sent for four lacks of piece goods and one lack of pepper; and in return are received four lacks in specie, and one lack in Madeira wine. Vessels outward bound also touch at Madeira, and import into Bombay its wine for one lack.

The proper trade of the Company with Bombay consists of exports from England for twenty-five lacks, *viz.* woollens ten lacks, naval and garrison stores seven lacks, iron, steel, copper, and lead two lacks and a half. The Company's export trade is attended with a considerable loss, the woollens usually selling considerably under prime cost; and besides, about five lacks of rupees are sent out annually in specie.

The Company's imports from Bombay are about ten lacks, in sugar and saltpetre, sent from Bengal as *dead weight* in their ships, pepper, piece goods, and Mocha coffee.

By the vessels of the United American States Bombay exports for about one lack of piece goods, and receives for half a lack in spirits and half a lack in Spanish dollars.

Recapitulation of the commerce of Bombay, in which

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which that of Surat is generally included. The average of five years, 1805—9.

	Exports to	Imports from	Balance.	
	Lacks of Rupees.			
Bassien and the neighbouring ports	4	4	0	
Goa and the Concan	40	11	29	in favour
Malabar Coast	6	18	12	against
Surat	20	18	2	in favour
Guzerat	50	70	20	against
Cutch and Scindy	12	22	10	ditto
Persian Gulf	18	10	8	in favour
Red Sea	16	2½	13½	ditto
Total of western trade	166	155½	10½	in favour
Ceylon	½	1	½	against
Coromandel	1½	1½	0	
Bengal	3	60	57	against
Prince of Wales's Island	2½	5	2½	ditto
Batavia	0	5	5	ditto
China	70	30	40	in favour
Laccadivas, Maldivas, Mosambique, Cape of Good Hope, New Holland, &c.	2	3	1	against
Total of eastern trade, &c.	79½	105½	26	against

London

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	Exports to	Imports from	Balance. Lacks of Rupees.	
London private trade	6½	14	7½	against
—— Company's trade	10	25	15	ditto
—— foreign Europe	5	1	4	in favour
—— United America	1	½	½	ditto
Total of European, &c. commerce	22½	40½	18	against
Total of western commerce	166	155½	10½	in favour
—— of eastern trade	79½	105½	26	against
—— of European, &c. trade	22½	40½	18	against
General average of five years	268	300½	32½	against

The average bullion trade of Bombay in the same period was:

Annual export, 36 lacks. Import, 87 lacks.

In 1808—9, the revenues of Bombay were ..... £. 740,000 sterl.

The expences 1,738,000

Deficit 998,000

In

In the same year the debt of Bombay was four millions sterling.

The military force on the Bombay establishment is 5,000 Europeans and 20,000 natives.

CEYLON AND COROMANDEL.

The commercial objects afforded by Ceylon, independent of cinnamon, are confined to cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, coir, arrack, pepper, pearls, and precious stones, and chanks. The value of these objects exported is eight lacks of rupees, and the imports amount to twelve lacks; of which grain for five lacks and piece goods for two. The export of cinnamon by the Dutch Company was latterly from two to 500,000lbs. a year; and since the occupation of the island by the English, the export has been about 300,000lbs., worth £100,000 sterling; of which quantity not more than 10,000lbs. is retained in England for home consumption, the rest being exported.

The commerce of the Tinnevelly territory centers in Tutecorin, which has a trade with Madras by native vessels, to the amount of about seven lacks of rupees of exports, chiefly grain; and one lack and a half of imports, principally piece goods. The trade of Tranquebar is insignificant; the Danish Company's ships taking off only a small quantity of piece goods, their cargoes being chiefly procured at Serampore. The trade with Madras is about two lacks of exports, chiefly liquors brought by

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by the Danish ships, and seven lacks of imports, almost entirely piece goods.

The commerce of the eastern coast of the peninsula centers in Madras, and we shall divide it in a similar manner to that of Bombay. The western trade includes the southern part of the Coromandel Coast, Ceylon, Malabar, &c., the Red Sea and Persian Gulf.

The exports from Madras to the southern part of the Carnatic amount to two lacks and a half in piece goods and grain; and the imports to four lacks; in piece goods two lacks and a half, indigo half a lack, &c.

To Tranquebar the exports are seven lacks of piece goods, and the imports two lacks of spirits and wines.

To Travancore, Tinevelly, Tutacorin, &c. Madras exports for two lacks, and imports for seven; the latter chiefly piece goods and grain.

To Ceylon Madras exports for eight lacks, of which grain for three and piece goods for two lacks; and receives for six lacks, of which two lacks in arrack, and one in areca nuts.

To the Malabar coast the exports are twelve lacks; in piece goods two lacks, grain six lacks, &c. The imports are seven lacks, in piece goods, pepper, timber, &c.

To Bombay the exports are eighteen lacks; of which grain for six lacks and a half, piece goods one, areca one, fruits one. The imports are three lacks, of which cotton for one and a half.

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To the Guzerat, Surat, Cutch and Scindy, the exports and imports do not exceed one lack each.

To the Red Sea the exports are two lacks and a half, of which grain for two lacks; and the imports 40,000 rupees.

To the Persian Gulf the exports are four lacks, and the imports 40,000 rupees, chiefly horses.

The second division, or eastern trade of Madras, includes the northern district of the Carnatic, the northern Circars, Bengal, Pegu, the Malay Islands, China, &c.

To the northern district of the Carnatic Madras exports for 40,000 rupees, and imports for five lacks; of which grain for three lacks, and piece goods for one lack.

To the northern Circars the exports are five lacks of rupees; of which wines and liquors one lack, and metals one lack. The imports amount to twenty-three lacks; of which grain for seventeen lacks, and piece goods for five lacks.

The trade with Bengal is five lacks of exports; of which salt for one lack, chanks of Ceylon for half a lack, and piece goods one lack. The imports are thirty lacks; of which grain for twenty lacks, raw silk for three lacks, and coral for three lacks.

To Pegu Madras exports for half a lack in piece goods, and half a lack in sundries, and receives for one lack and a half; of which half a lack in timber, and 20,000 rupees in horses.

To Prince of Wales's Island and Malacca the exports

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exports are eleven lacks; of which nine for piece goods. The imports seven lacks; of which pepper for three, areca for two, and benjamin for one.

To Batavia the exports are half a lack in piece goods, and the imports one lack and a half in arrack and spices.

To Manilla the exports are two lacks of piece goods, and the imports 40,000 rupees.

To China Madras sends for four lacks of pearls of Ceylon, cotton for one lack, piece goods for one lack, and sundries for one lack; total seven lacks: and receives for five lacks; in nankin one lack and a half, tea one lack, sugar and sugar-candy half a lack, porcelain half a lack, camphire 40,000 rupees, and furniture 30,000 rupees.

The third division of the commerce of Madras is that with Europe and North America.

To London Madras exports, by *private* trade, twelve lacks; of which piece goods for one lack and a half, precious stones of Golconda two lacks, and cotton half a lack. The imports are twelve lacks, chiefly articles of European consumption, amongst which the principal is wine for four lacks.

The Company's trade to London consists in the export of fifty lacks, chiefly in piece goods: and the import of seventeen lacks; of which three lacks of woollens, six of naval and military stores, and four of copper.

To foreign Europe, and chiefly Lisbon, Madras exports about one lack, and imports five lacks; besides Madeira wine for four lacks.

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To the United American States Madras exports for six lacks in piece goods, and imports for two lacks in spirits.

Recapitulation of the commerce of Madras.

Exports to.	Lacks of Rupees.	Imports.	Balance.
Southern part of Carnatic	2½	4	1½ against
Tranquebar	7	2	5 in favour
Travancore, &c.	2	7	5 against
Ceylon	8	6	2 in favour
Malabar Coast	12	7	5 ditto
Bombay	18	3	15 ditto
Guzerat, &c.	1	1	0
Persian Gulf	4	½	3½ in favour
Red Sea	2½	½	2 ditto
Total of western commerce	57	31	26 in favour
Northern Carnatic	½	5	4½ against
Northern Circars	5	23	18 ditto
Bengal	5	30	25 ditto
Pegu	½	1½	1 ditto
Prince of Wales's Island, &c.	11	7	4 in favour
Batavia	½	1½	1 against
Manilla	2	½	1½ in favour
China	7	5	2 ditto
Total of eastern commerce	31½	73½	42 against

Private

Exports to.	Lacks of Rupees.	Imports.	Balance.	
Private trade with London	12	12	0	
Company's trade	50	17	33	in favour
Foreign Europe	1	5	4	against
United America	6	2	4	in favour
Total of European commerce, &c.	69	36	33	in favour
Total of western commerce	57	31	26	in favour
—— of eastern commerce	31½	73½	42	against
—— of European and American commerce	69	36	33	in favour
Commerce with various places and fractions	10	10	0	
	167½	150½	17	in favour

The average bullion trade of Madras is: annual exports, seven lacks; imports, seventy-five lacks.

Madras has four ships of 800 tons and upwards belonging to it, besides a number of lesser vessels.

The revenues of Madras in 1808-9 were nearly five millions sterling, and the expences exceeded that sum nearly half a million.

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The debt of the presidency in the same year was upwards of seven millions.

The military force consists of 10,000 Europeans and 52,000 natives.

BENGAL.

The principal exports of Bengal by the port of Calcutta are piece goods, opium, raw silk, indigo, rice, sugar, and rum. Its trade naturally divides into four branches. 1. To the coast of Coromandel and Ceylon. 2. To the Malabar coast, Gulf of Persia, and Arabia. 3. To the Malay Archipelago and China; and 4. to Europe.

To the coast of Coromandel the exports amount to twenty-nine lacks of rupees; of which grain for ten, raw silk four, piece goods four, sugar two, and opium one. The imports are eight lacks; of which chank shells for two, piece goods for one, and copper for one.

To Ceylon the exports are four lacks; grain for two and piece goods for one. The imports one lack, of which one half is in coir and coir cordage.

To the Malabar coast the exports are forty-six lacks; piece goods twelve, sugar twelve, raw silk fifteen, grain three, rum one. The imports are only four lacks; of which horses for half a lack.

To the Gulf of Persia and Red Sea the exports are eighteen lacks; of which piece goods for seven, sugar for four, grain for three, indigo for two, and raw

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raw silk for one. The imports are four lacks; of which horses for one, cowries, copper, and drugs half a lack each.

To Pegu the exports are only one lack of piece goods, and the returns four lacks of teak timber.

The Malay trade chiefly centers in Prince of Wales's Island, to which the exports are twenty-six lacks; in opium for eighteen, piece goods for five, raw silk and grain one each. The imports are ten lacks; of which six for pepper, two for areca, one for metals, one for tutenague.

To Sumatra the exports are three lacks and a half; of which opium for two lacks and a half, and piece goods for one. The import is confined to pepper for three lacks, and the balance is paid in gold dust.

To Batavia Bengal exports for about a lack of rupees, which is paid for in specie.

To Manilla the export is for four lacks of piece goods, and the import half a lack in tutenague and spaan.

The most valuable branch of the trade of Calcutta is with China, the exports being fifty-six lacks of rupees; of which twenty-six for opium, twenty for cotton, piece goods three, saltpetre two, grain one. The imports are only sixteen lacks; in tutenague five, tea two, piece goods and nankins two, camphor one and a half, red and white lead one, vermilion half a lack.

To London Bengal exports by private trade for ninety-two lacks; of which indigo for forty-five,

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raw silk for seven, piece goods three, cotton one, gums and sugar half each. The imports are thirty-eight lacks; of which seven for wines and spirits, three for glass ware, cutlery and hardware, carriages and hosiery, hats, millinery, and books, one each; boots and shoes, ironmongery, perfumery, plated goods, naval stores and stationary half a lack each.

The Company's trade between Bengal and London is, exports 100 lacks; of which piece goods for sixty, raw silk for eighteen, indigo for ten, sugar ten, and saltpetre two. The imports are thirty-six lacks; of which woollens for seven, copper for twelve, naval and military stores six, lead one and a half, iron one.

To Lisbon Calcutta exports for twenty lacks; of which fifteen for piece goods, and indigo for one. The imports are five lacks; of which Madeira wine for three, and Lisbon for one.

To the other foreign countries of Europe the exports do not exceed nine lacks, and the imports three; the former are chiefly piece goods and the latter wines and brandy.

To the United States, in American vessels, Calcutta exports for sixty lacks; of which forty-eight in piece goods, twelve in sugar, and two in indigo. The imports do not exceed seven lacks; in brandy three, Madeira wine two, and metals one.

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Recapitulation of the trade to Calcutta.

Exports to	Lacks of Rupees.	Imports from.	Balance.
Coromandel	29 ..	8 ..	21 in favour
Ceylon	4 ..	1 ..	3 ditto
Malabar Coast	46 ..	4 ..	42 ditto
Gulf of Persia and Red Sea	18 ..	4 ..	14 ditto
Pegu	1 ..	4 ..	3 against
Prince of Wales's Island	25 ..	10 ..	15 in favour
Sumatra	3 ..	3 ..	0
Batavia	1 ..	0 ..	1 in favour
Manilla	4 ..	½ ..	3½ ditto
China	56 ..	16 ..	40 ditto
London private trade	92 ..	35 ..	57 ditto
——— Company's trade	100 ..	36 ..	64 ditto
Foreign Europe ...	29 ..	8 ..	21 ditto
United States of America	60 ..	7 ..	43 ditto
To several places ..	4 ..	2 .	2 ditto
Total of trade	472 .	148½	323½

The annual average of the bullion trade is, exports four lacks, and imports 181 lacks.

Calcutta has forty ships of from 1,000 to 300 tons, and thirty-three under 300. Total tonnage 16,327, mostly built at Calcutta.

The revenues in 1808–9 were near ten millions sterling, and the expenses eight millions. The debt of the presidency was then twenty millions.

The

The Bengal army consists of 7,000 Europeans and 56,000 natives.

The commerce of the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal is inconsiderable, Aracan exporting only a little rice, elephants' teeth, wax, wood oil, and coarse cloths. The commerce of Pegu is centered in Rangoon, which exports for about five lacks of teak timber, and imports two lacks chiefly piece goods.

MALAY ISLANDS.

The Malay Islands afford numerous and valuable objects of commerce, of which the chief are gold-dust and ivory, tin, tutenague, biche de mer or trepang, birds' nests, wax, dammer, rice, rattans, sharks' fins and maws, terra japonica, pepper, dragons' blood, camphire, areca-nut, sago, cloves and nutmegs, balachang, benzoin, copper, eagle wood, and wood oil.

P. of Wales's Island.

Prince of Wales's Island, since its settlement by the English, has become the emporium of the Malay trade, the proas of Sumatra, Celebes, Borneo, the Moluccas, and Malay peninsula, bringing hither the objects above enumerated. The average annual export to India is twenty-six lacks, of which pepper for ten, areca for four, tin two, spices one, benzoin one and a half, tutenague one. The imports are forty-one lacks, in opium for

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for twenty-one, piece goods seventeen, raw silk one and a half, rice one and a half, and cotton one.

A few country ships from Bengal and eight to ten Chulia vessels from the Coromandel coast, visit Achen, and exchange piece goods for the produce of the country, chiefly pepper, camphire, and gold dust. The coast of Pedir is also occasionally visited by Bengal traders, but from the treachery of the Malays of this coast the trade is always carried on board. From Padang, on the west coast, the Dutch export gold dust, pepper, areca, benzoin, camphire, sapan wood, brimstone, rattans, wax, and gumlac. Sumatra.

The English company's trade to Sumatra centers in Bencoolen, which is the depot for all the productions of the territories under their influence. Their average annual export to London is for two and a half lacks of rupees solely in pepper, or about 1,000 tons; and the average import is only one lack, the deficiency being paid in bullion. The revenue of Bencoolen does not exceed one lack of rupees, while its expenses, when a presidency, exceeded ten lacks. The trade to India consists in the average export of four lacks of rupees, of which pepper for two, spices for one and a half, and gold dust half a lack. The imports amount to four lacks, of which three in opium.

From Palembang, the Dutch exported three millions of lbs. of the tin of Banca, of which two millions

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millions and a half to China, and the remainder to Holland. The other exports were pepper three millions of lbs. to Holland; diamonds 1,000 carats; 100,000 bundles of rattans to China.

Java. Batavia is the grand depot for the commercial productions of the Dutch possessions in the Malay archipelago, from whence they are shipped for Europe. The principal of these objects are the spices of the Moluccas, and the pepper, sugar, arrack, coffee, and indigo of Java. Of pepper about seven millions of lbs. were exported chiefly to Europe; of sugar seven millions of lbs. were formerly sent to India, but the quantity has been greatly reduced by the extended production of this article in Bengal; about a million and half of lbs. were sent to Holland. In some years the export of coffee to Holland amounted to ten millions of lbs. The only import of the Dutch company from Europe was bullion for half a million sterling a year, and some iron as ballast for their ships. The officers of their ships had the privilege of taking out investments of European goods.

The exports from Batavia to India average five lacks of rupees a year; and the imports, chiefly opium and piece goods, two lacks.

The trade between Batavia and the islands of Celebes, Borneo, and Timor, consists in the supplying them with piece goods of India, for which they receive slaves and generally the Malay productions, which are re-exported to China.

A number of Chinese junks arrive at Batavia every

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every year in November and December, bringing with them the various productions and manufactured objects of their country, particularly teas, alum, camphire, nankeens, and silks; for which they receive arrack, birds' nests, areca, biche de mer, cotton, spices, tin, pearls, rattans, sandal and sapan wood, &c. The Dutch company also exported these objects to China in their own ships. Java.

The Clove Islands of Amboyna and its dependencies, and the Banda or Nutmeg Islands have no other exports than their respective spices. The average annual produce of cloves is 600,000 lbs. but is subject to great variations. The quantity imported into Holland was also extremely fluctuating, in 1786 being only 25,000 lbs. while in 1789 it was near a million and a half. In 1805 the English company imported into England 180,000 lbs. of this spice, which sold for £28,000; about 20,000 lbs. is the annual consumption of the British Islands. Spice Islands.

The produce of nutmegs in the Banda Islands is almost as variable as that of cloves, in some years the Dutch selling near 300,000 lbs. in Holland, while in others the quantity exposed for sale did not exceed 20,000 lbs. In 1804 the English company imported 118,000 lbs. which sold for £54,000, while in 1805 the import was but 36,000 lbs. and the sale produced £34,000: about 40,000 were retained for home consumption. The company's import of mace in 1804 was 24,000 lbs.

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Spice Islands. which sold for £53,000; the quantity retained for home consumption was 5,400 lbs.

Borneo. The treacherous disposition of the Malays of Borneo prevents European vessels from visiting the greater part of that island. The Dutch at Bandermassing and Pontiana import piece goods, for which they receive gold, rough diamonds, and other Malay products. The Chinese, in their own vessels, visit these ports as well as Succadana, Momparva, and Borneo, giving the manufactured objects of China for pearls, diamonds, pepper, birds' nests, camphire, and other objects. The proas of Borneo also carry on a great trade chiefly with Prince of Wales's Island, from which they take large quantities of opium.

Celebes. The independent ports of Celebes are little frequented by European vessels, the Buggess proas exporting the produce of the island, which is the same as Borneo, together with a cloth named cambay, manufactured by the Buggesses, and of which there is a vast consumption in the Malay islands. The Dutch exported from the ports under their influence, a considerable quantity of gold and rice for their eastern settlements, in exchange for opium and piece goods. Slaves were also one of the Dutch staple exports from this island.

Sooloo. The Sooloo islands are visited both by Chinese junks and Buggess proas, but the natives being amongst the most treacherous of the Malays, Europeans seldom venture among them. Pearls are the principal export by the Chinese, and slaves by the Buggesses.

Manilla

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Manilla is the depot of all the productions of the Philippines intended to be exported to China, America, or Europe. With respect to the commerce between the different provinces, it is entirely in the hands of the Alcades, who send vessels to Manilla for the merchandize their province requires, which they exchange with the Indians for the productions of the soil. These latter are principally indigo, excellent tobacco and sugar, areca, cotton, cocoa, and several of the objects common to the Malay islands.

The trade between Manilla and British India does not exceed of exports one lack of rupees; and the imports, chiefly in piece goods, amount to six lacks, the balance being paid in specie.

The Spaniards, on their first arrival at the Philippines, found a considerable trade existing between them and China, and which still continues. The Chinese arrive at Manilla in their own junks from Nankin, Amoy, and Canton, in December or January, and the number of these vessels is about twelve or thirteen every season. Those from Nankin bring oranges and other fruits, sweetmeats, silks, and porcelain. Those of Amoy bring nankins, raw and manufactured silk, some coarse cloths of cotton and flax for the Indian cloathing, paper parasols, iron saucepans, nails, and other iron work, vermilion, &c. The cargoes of the Canton junks are generally confined to tea and porcelain. The whole of these imports may amount to 700,000 dollars. The Chinese take in return birds' nests, trepang, tapa, deers' sinews,

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Philippines. sinews, mother of pearl shells, ebony, and other produce of the Malay archipelago, and besides receive a considerable balance in dollars.

The Spaniards of Manilla are the only strangers that are permitted to trade to any port of China but Canton. By a particular treaty with the Chinese, the port of Amoy is also open to them; the only advantage they take of this privilege is to send one vessel a year with dollars and merchandize to purchase a cargo. The merchandize thus imported pays a fixed duty of five per cent. only by the importers, and two and a half per cent. by the purchasers, which, together with the greater cheapness of the return cargo, makes a voyage to Amoy much more profitable than to Canton.

By a decree of the King of Spain, the government of Manilla is directed to equip a ship of 1,200 tons every year, and place her at the disposal of the merchants of the colony, to proceed to America. Previous to 1802, the commander and officers of this vessel, named the *galleon*, were usually Luconian Spaniards, who had so little knowledge of their profession, that of every ten galleons, two were certain to be wrecked, and two more to founder at sea. In consequence of these losses, the galleons are now commanded by an officer of the royal navy. The whole expenses of building, equipping, and sailing the galleons are defrayed by the government, who receives no other indemnification than 75,000 dollars.

The galleon is authorised to receive 1000 bales of

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of merchandize of a certain size only, and of the total value of 500,000 dollars; but this regulation is always eluded, and the value of the cargo generally amounts to two millions of dollars. Besides the merchants, the officers and seamen of the galleon, and the officers of the government of Manilla, are allowed a certain tonnage, from a quarter of a bale to six bales, as a part of their emoluments, with liberty to embark merchandize to the extent of their privilege in their own names: but, in general, they sell their tonnage to the merchants, the average price being 450 dollars the bale. Each merchant usually sends a supercargo with his part of the cargo, who receives seven per cent. commission, so that the galleon has generally from fifteen to twenty supercargoes. Philippines.

When the galleon is completely ready to put to sea, an image of the Virgin is carried on board her by the clergy, with the greatest pomp, and she receives the benediction, and until the merchants are informed that she has safely cleared the Straits of St. Bernardino, they have daily masses said for her. During the passage the same service is performed before the Virgin, by priests embarked on board, and on her arrival at Acapulco she is landed with equal pomp. The galleon never sails until the S.W. monsoon is perfectly fixed, that is about the middle of June. The passage to Acapulco takes commonly five months, while the return is made in forty days. On her arrival at Acapulco, the merchants of Mexico send thither their agents

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to purchase her cargo, which pays a duty of thirty-three per cent. on the value in America, and the dollars received in exchange pay a duty of six per cent.

The galleon cannot quit Acapulco until the viceroy permits the opening of a register of the sums intended to be embarked on board her; and if, from peculiar circumstances, he conceives it necessary to withhold this permission, she must remain till the following season.

The only merchandize the galleon exports from America, is a small quantity of cochineal and sweetmeats; but she is obliged to receive the cloathing, &c. for the garrison of Guam.

The enormous duties on the imports of the galleon at Acapulco, together with the high interest of money at Manilla, the expense of commission, &c.* renders this trade very little beneficial, and the privilege accorded to the Philippine Company and other subjects of Spain to export the manufactures of Europe and India to America, must eventually put an end to it, unless these duties are removed.

SIAM AND COCHIN-CHINA.

The Portuguese carry on a regular trade with Siam

* Duty on import at Acapulco - - 33 per cent.
Duty on export of coin - - - - 6
Interest of money at Manilla - 40
Commission - - - - - - - 7
Expense of embarkation - - - 5
91

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Siam from Macao, and the English from Calcutta sometimes visit it, and it is much frequented by Malay proas. The exports are tin, elephants' teeth, tutenague, lead, and sapan wood: some precious stones, gold, and copper, are also to be procured.

Though the Cochin-Chinese empire is well situated for trade, and produces numerous objects of commerce, the civil wars and distractions of the country for the last thirty years, by rendering commerce insecure, has caused it to be almost entirely abandoned by Europeans. In 1778, and again in 1803, the English from India attempted to open a regular trade with Cochin-China proper, but failed in the first instance from the disturbed state of the country, and in the second from the influence of the French in the counsels of the government: of late years, therefore, an occasional neutral vessel, or rather English country ship under neutral colours, with a few small Portuguese vessels from Macao, and some Chinese junks, alone visited this country, while, with respect to the trade of the Cochin-Chinese subjects, it is entirely confined to coasting, they being prohibited from passing the limits of their own coasts. The objects of export are eagle, rose, and sapan wood, sugar, cassia, pepper, rice, areca, cardamums, ginger, birds' nests, trepang, sharks' fins, gum-lac, and gum-gutt, indigo, elephants' teeth, cotton, raw silk, ship timber and masts: a small quantity of these articles are, however, taken in exchange for the commodities of China and India,

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the importers preferring payment in silver ingots, the produce of the mines of the country. The principal imports from China are tutenague, tea, porcelain, alum, drugs, pepper, and sandal wood. The chief trading ports are Cambodia, Saigong, Faifoe, Nhiatrang, Turon, and Hue.

In the seventeenth century the ports of Tonquin were open to Europeans, and the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French, had factories in the country, but which have been long abandoned, and at present all Europeans, except the Portuguese of Macao, are prohibited from entering the ports, but are allowed to anchor at a certain distance from the shore: the chief trade is, however, carried on by the Chinese and Siamese. The importation of all commodities is permitted, but the export of rice and the precious metals is prohibited by the present government, and that of cinnamon and copper is reserved to the crown. The other chief objects of export are areca nut, ebony, ivory, tortoiseshell, dried fish, varnish and varnished works, mother of pearl works, raw silk and cotton in quantity, calamine, and molasses. The imports from China are fine teas and sugar, for though the Cochin-Chinese territory produces these objects in abundance, the preparation of them is very imperfect; spices of the Moluccas, drugs, hemp, flax, printed cottons and silks, (those of the country are of equal quality, but are all white, the method of printing not being understood), some woollens, hardware, and various objects of iron, for though Tonquin has

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has abundance of this metal, the working of it is little advanced; quicksilver and porcelain compleat the list of imports from China. The import by Europeans is chiefly confined to fire-arms, and these are only allowed to be sold to the government.

CHINA.

The trade of Macao is very considerable, and it has several mercantile houses of respectability, and some vessels of burden belonging to it.

From Bengal it imports, besides cotton manufactures, about 3000 cases of opium annually in its own ships, foreign vessels being prohibited this branch of commerce. This drug is purchased at Calcutta for six to 800 rupees the case of 100lb. and sells at Macao for from 1600 to 3200. It is entirely smuggled into the interior of China. Several small vessels belonging to Macao are continually employed amongst the Malay islands, collecting birds' nests, trepang, nippis, pepper, and all the other productions of the archipelago saleable in the Chinese market. It also sends four or five vessels annually to Turon and Saigong, in Cochin-China, for areca nut, birds' nests, trepang, and ivory.

The Portuguese government obliges the merchants of Macao to make two very unprofitable voyages annually, one to Goa with dispatches, and the other to Timor with criminals. The last is, however, the least onerous, as the vessel brings back birds' nests, trepang, sandal wood, &c.

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General List of Vessels arrived at, and sailed from Macao in 1806–7.

No. of Vessels.	Burden. Tons.	Arrived from.	Sailed for.
2	800	1 Bengal 1 Lisbon and Madras	Bengal Lisbon
1	700	Bengal	Cochin-China
1	600	Ditto	Ceylon, Bombay and Goa
1	500	Cochin-China	Cochin-China
1	450	Goa	Bengal
2	400	1 Bengal 1 Java and Timor	Lisbon Java
2	350	1 Manilla 1 Pulo Pinang	Manilla Palembeng and Bengal
4	300	1 Bengal 1 Do. and Manilla 1 Ditto Ditto 1 Palemberg and Bornea	Manilla and Bengal Ditto Ditto Bengal Rhio and Bengal
1	280	Bengal	Pegu and Ceylon
5	250	1 Lisbon and Madeira 1 Bengal 1 Batavia and Sumatra 1 Bengal 1 Madras, Batavia and Manilla	Sooloo and Bengal Isle of France Java and Bencoolen Manilla and Sooloo Madras

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No. of Vessels.	Burden, Tons.	Arrived from.	Sailed for.
4	200	1 Bengal	Batavia and Timor
		1 Do.	Bengal
		1 Sourabaya	Goa
		1 Lisbon	Lisbon
1	150	Bengal	Talanguana
1	100	Manilla	Java

The first Europeans whose commercial enterprizes led them to China were admitted freely into all the ports of the empire; but from their real or pretended indiscretions, this liberty was gradually abridged, until at length the port of Canton was alone left open to them.

At first the ships ascended to the walls of this city, but the depth of water decreasing annually, and the ships at the same time increasing in size, they were obliged, and still continue, to anchor at Hoang-poo, or Whampoa, four leagues below Canton.

The Europeans who resided at, or visited Canton on affairs of commerce, for some time had permission to choose the quarter of their residence; but this privilege was successively diminished until 1760, when they were obliged to reside within a certain and very limited space, and within this the different nations of Europe having any commercial intercourse with China, have built factories more or less superb, according to the extent of their commerce. These factories are, however, only allowed to be occupied by their owners during the time their ships remain at China, which is from the beginning of September

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to the beginning of February; during the rest of the year all Europeans are obliged to retire to Macao.

Besides the injuries the commerce of Europeans suffers by the confinement to a single port of this vast empire, it is subject to various vexatious restraints, and the persons employed in it to such indignities, that nothing but the vast benefits arising from it to the governments of Europe, and the habitude, now become unconquerable, of the constant use of its tea among the people, could preserve its existence.

On the arrival of a ship at Whampoa, a custom-house boat drops on each side of her, and remains there till her departure, nor can any one of the ship's boats quit her, until every person on board is strictly searched, the captain excepted.

The hong is an association of twelve of the principal merchants of Canton, appointed by the emperor to superintend the trade with Europeans, and is under the immediate jurisdiction of the hautpoul, or chief of the custom-house of Canton, who is always a mandarin of high rank.

On the arrival of a ship, a member of the hong is selected to transact her business, and takes the name of surety merchant. He immediately becomes responsible to government, not only for the faithful payment of the duties and the prevention of smuggling, but also for the conduct of every individual belonging to the ship, of which he is thus obliged to become the factor;

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factor. To the captain of the ship he is responsible for the sale of the cargo, and the quality of the cargo put on board, for the Europeans have no communication whatever with the purchasers of their cargoes. To fulfil this last duty, the surety merchant puts his chop or seal on every package, and if on their arrival in England any are found to be of an inferior quality to the samples, he is obliged to take them back, paying the expense of double freight, and twenty per cent. damages. Several chests of tea are thus returned from England every year.

While the Europeans belonging to the ships are at Canton, the hong merchant and the comprodor, or agent of the factory they belong to, are jointly responsible for their conduct, and are fined severely by the hautpoul for any irregularities they may commit.

In 1792 a splendid embassy was sent from England to China with valuable presents for the Emperor, in hopes of procuring a more favourable treatment of the English merchants; but though Lord Macartney, the ambassador, was received politely, he was little better than a prisoner during his stay in China, and without being permitted to enter on the business of his mission, he was told, that the winter of China might be unfavourable to his health, and that, therefore, the Emperor had given orders for his being escorted back to Canton.

The English factory at Canton is composed of four chief supracargoes, who form a select committee,

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mittee, six supracargoes, six factors and writers, two surgeons, and two or three other Europeans. Besides large salaries to these servants, and a commission on all the merchandize imported and exported in the Company's ships, the Company defray the whole expense of the domestic establishment of the factory, of which the public table is said to cost 500 dollars a day, independent of wine, which the Company send out gratis.

The commerce of Canton divides itself into four heads :—1st. With Great-Britain. 2. With foreign Europe and America. 3. With India. 4. Commerce by the Chinese junks.

1st. Before the act of commutation in 1784, the imports to China from England by the Company never exceeded £150,000 a year; but since the passing of the above act, they have greatly augmented, particularly in the article of woollens, which have increased from £100,000 to one million. The other imports of the Company to China are tin * and lead, which have also

* The tin of Cornwall was first introduced into China in about 1780, and found so ready a sale, that the Company contracted with the proprietors of the mines to take 800 tons a year. Latterly, however, this metal having risen in price in Europe, the stipulated quantity has not been delivered to the Company. The import of tin into China is about 4,000 tons a year, the whole of which was formerly supplied by the Malay islands. The Chinese consume this metal in their religious ceremonies, for which use it is beat into leaves as fine as those of gold, and the size of a playing card, which are consecrated, and every pious Chinese burns one or more of them before his joss, or idol, at sun rise, at certain hours of the day, and at nightfall. The export of lead by the Company is from 1 to 2,000 tons a year; but this object will probably decline, very productive mines having been latterly discovered in the province of Hou-Quang, from whence the tea provinces can be supplied at a cheaper rate, than from Canton by English import.

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also greatly increased within the last twenty years, the amount before 1784 not exceeding £10,000 a year, while between 1800 and 1809 it considerably exceeded £200,000. The total prime cost of the Company's investments to China has latterly varied between one million and one million and a half sterling; and the export of bullion has been reduced from the average of half a million to the average of £100,000.

The Company's exports from Canton are teas, nankeens, wrought and raw silks, and porcelain. In 1810, the prime cost of the investments at Canton was £1,487,000; the freight and charges £873,000; and the customs paid in England £18,500; total cost and charges £2,378,500, which returned at the Company's sales £3,723,000, of which tea for more than three millions and a half, the annual import of other objects being only raw silk £100,000, nankeens £50,000, porcelain £5,000, and wrought silks £1,000.(L)

The private investments of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships to China consist of lead, furs, particularly sea-otter, beaver, rabbit, and seal skins, smalts, Prussian blue, cochineal, clocks, and watches; the total amount of these goods exported does not exceed £100,000, and about an equal sum in Spanish dollars. About sixteen Company's ships of 1,800 to 1,000 tons arrive at Canton every season.

2d. Trade with foreign Europe. The Dutch formerly held the next place to the English in the trade

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trade to Canton, where they had a handsome factory on a large scale; their imports were Leyden woollen cloths and camblets from Holland, and the productions of the Malay islands taken in by their ships at Batavia, in their passage out. The exports consisted of four to five million lbs. of tea, which sold in Holland for from 3 to £500,000.

The Danes had a factory at Canton, but no permanent establishment; their exports by two to four ships a season were lead, steel, and bullion, and their imports about one million and a half lbs. of tea.

The Swedes had a factory and resident supracargoes at Canton, their usual import of tea being from one to two millions of lbs.

The French had resident supracargoes at Canton, but since the passing of the commutation act in England, by which the smuggling of tea was greatly reduced, the export of this article by the French did not average above half a million of lbs. a year.

The Spanish Philippine company have resident supracargoes at Canton, and their ships always touch at Manilla, where they receive specie, logwood, and cotton for the China market, and which they exchange for silks and nankeens principally, a part of which they leave at Manilla on their return, for the Lima ships.

The vessels of the United States of America trading to China, have always a supracargo on board;

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board; their imports are ginseng and furs of America, English camblets, ebony of the Isle of France, sandal-wood, birds' nests, &c. which they pick up among the Malay Islands in their passage; they have also tried the cotton of America, but have been under sold by that of India. These objects amounted to about £200,000, and the bullion imported to £500,000; the quantity of tea exported by the Americans has varied between one and twelve millions of lbs.

3d. Trade with India. The trade between India and Canton is very considerable, employing from thirty to fifty ships of large tonnage. The imports to China averaged in the five years 1802–6, 135 lacks of rupees, of which cotton for ninety lacks, opium for thirty, piece goods three, pearls four, saltpetre three, sandal-wood two, sharks' fins two, and grain one.

The average exports were fifty-three lacks, of which sugar and sugar-candy for ten, piece goods six, tutenague six, camphire three, tea three, raw silk two, nankeens two, red and white lead one and a half, vermilion one and a half, china-ware one. The average balance paid in treasure fifty-four lacks of rupees.

The following is a list of European and North American ships that visited Canton in 1789 and 1806.

60 English

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1789.		1806.	
60 English	20 Company's ships 40 Country ships	80 English	18 Company's 62 Country
5 Dutch			
3 Portuguese			
1 French			
1 Dane		3 Danes	
15 American		39 Americans	
85		122	

4th. Commerce from Canton by Chinese junks. This branch of the Chinese trade occupied in one year nine junks to Cochin-China, seven to Cancao, nine to Pachuk, two to Cambodia, four to Palembang, and one to Batavia. The Chinese junks also visit Malacca, Borneo, Celebes, Timor, and the Philippines.

JAPAN.

The Portuguese, who were the first Europeans that visited Japan (in 1542), enjoyed an unlimited liberty to trade and preach the gospel, but their insolence and political intrigues drew down on them the vengeance of the government, and the extermination of the Christian religion, and the prohibition,

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prohibition, under pain of death, to any Portuguese to set foot in Japan, was the result.*

In 1610, the English first visited Japan, and received permission to establish a factory at Firando, which in 1619 was removed to Nangasaki, but being found little advantageous, was withdrawn in 1623. In 1673 an attempt was made to renew the intercourse, but was unsuccessful, the Japanese assigning as reasons, the alliance of England with Portugal by the marriage of the king to a Portuguese princess, and the English flag having a cross resembling the Portuguese. Three other attempts had no better success, and since 1689, the idea has not been resumed.

In 1803, an English country ship from Calcutta conveyed a cargo to Nangasaki, but was refused permission to dispose of any part of it, and met with a similar prohibition at the Lieu-Kieu Islands.

The Russians have also made some attempts to open a trade with Japan, but with no better success than the English. In 1779 the merchants of Okotsh sent a vessel to Matsimay, who was not allowed to trade. In 1792 a Japanese vessel, sailing to this latter port with a cargo of flour, was driven out of her course and wrecked on Oonalashka, from whence the crew were conveyed to Okotsk.

* Some days after the Japanese new year, the ceremony of trampling on the cross and on the images of the Virgin and child, are performed in every town of Japan, and from the *actual* performance of this ceremony, no individual of any age is exempted, infant children being put with their feet upon the sacred images. It is not, however, true that the Dutch are also obliged to perform this sacrilegious ceremony.

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Okotsk. This seemed a favourable opportunity of opening an intercourse, and accordingly a vessel was fitted out to convey the Japanese to their country; but though the Russians were received with hospitality by the people of Matsimay, where they landed their passengers, they were closely guarded, and could not obtain permission to proceed by land to Jedda: they, however, procured permission for a single vessel to visit Nangasaki, couched in the following terms: "We permit a Russian vessel to enter the port of Nangasaki; and on this occasion we renew the prohibition of any foreign vessel entering any port of the empire, or suffering the exercise of the christian religion, or the least of its ceremonies."

The ambassador conveyed to Japan by Captain Krusenstern, in 1804, was refused permission to proceed to Jedda, from whence a plenipotentiary was sent to Nangasaki to meet him. In the two audiences had by the Russian ambassador with this personage, he was obliged to submit to every degrading etiquette; and the second terminated with his receiving the order of the Emperor, "that no Russian ship should again appear at Japan; and that if any Japanese subjects should be again cast on the coasts of Russia,* they should be delivered over to the Dutch, who would send them by the way of Batavia to Nangasaki." The presents, and even

* The Russian ship conveyed five Japanese, who had been taken in 1796 among the Aleutian islands, and carried to Russia.

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even the letter carried out by the ambassador, were returned.

The trade of the Dutch to Japan has been subject to various vicissitudes, from the prohibition of certain imports and exports, and other restrictions from time to time. In its most flourishing period, when their factory was at Firando, they exported annually from Holland £500,000 in goods, and imported £450,000 in silver, besides valuable cargoes of copper and other goods.

The injunctions from the Japanese government to the Dutch traders are, that they shall have no communication with the Portuguese, nor import any Portuguese commodities; that they shall notify to the Japanese government if the Portuguese conquer any new countries, or convert them to the Christian faith; that they shall note the places where they meet Portuguese ships, and deliver in the same to the Japanese government. The Dutch are prohibited from purchasing, or exporting any of the following objects: the Emperor's coat of arms, or any objects on which it is painted or marked: all prints or paintings of soldiers, or of the persons of the court, or maps or plans of any part of the Japanese empire: models or plans of Chinese ships, images of military men, &c. &c.

On the arrival of a Dutch vessel at Nangasaki, she is immediately visited by custom-house officers, who demand all the books, arms, and money that may be on board. The books are thus seized in order to prevent the introduction of any inculcating Christianity. A list of the crew is also deliver-

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ed to these officers, who muster them every morning and evening of the days that the vessel is loading and unloading, on which days only any communication is permitted with the shore.

The captain and supracargo being alone exempted from personal search on quitting or returning to the ship, used formerly to dress themselves in the most ample coat and breeches, in which they smuggled on shore the prohibited goods. These trips were made three times a day, and, when fully loaded, each was obliged to be supported to the factory by two sailors. But the exceptions to the searching being done away in 1775, this smuggling was put an end to, and at the same time the captain was either obliged to remain always on board, or on shore; and if he chose the latter, he was only allowed to visit the ship twice. These strict orders were given in consequence of finding a great quantity of contraband goods on board a Dutch vessel which had been abandoned at sea by her crew, and afterwards brought into port by the Japanese fishermen.

On the days of discharging and loading, two chief officers of the custom-house, and several inferior ones, remain on board till the work is over. The merchandize, and people who have occasion to go on shore, are sent in the Japanese boats only. Japanese are also obliged to be employed to load and discharge the ship. There is no possibility of any clandestine communication by the ship's boats with the factory, the sea-gate being always shut and guarded; and if there is any necessity for the captain

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captain or surgeon who may be on shore, to visit the ship, leave must be first procured from the governor of the town, and the person is conducted by a guard, through bye streets, to a small gate, where a Japanese boat is ready to convey him on board, after being strictly searched. The guard also accompany him in the boat, and remain in her till he has finished his business, when he is conveyed on shore with the same precautions.

Formerly the ship's rudder was unhung on her arrival, and the square sails carried on shore; but the unnecessary trouble this occasioned has caused it to be discontinued. On the days when there is no discharging or loading, the Japanese officers do not visit the ship.

The examination of the merchandize landed is most strict. Every package is opened, and the contents examined one by one. Planks are sounded, to discover if they are hollow; an iron rod is thrust into the tubs of butter, preserves, and cheeses; nay they even go so far as to break any eggs that may be on board, to ascertain that they contain nothing contraband. All letters passing between the ship and factory are examined by an interpreter.

The imports are sugar, elephants' teeth, tin, fine long cloths and silks of India, sapan wood, lead, bar iron, tortoise shell, raw silk, rattans, quicksilver, pepper, cinnamon, cloves and nutmegs, glass ware, coffee, camphire, saffron, and some few objects of Dutch manufacture, as spy-glasses, watches, &c.

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The exports from Japan by the Dutch Company are copper in bars and camphire, each ship's cargo consisting of 6750 pickle of the former, and 364 boxes of camphire, of 125lbs. each; all of which are purchased on the Company's account only.

The articles permitted to be purchased by the individuals of the crew are tea, soy, porcelain, silk and rice.

It is forbidden to pay specie for the cargo of the ship, consequently the produce of the country is obliged to be taken in exchange. All the goods smuggled are, however, paid for in gold. A Japanese taken smuggling is punished with death, and a Dutchman severely fined and banished for ever from the empire; but if the fraud is not discovered till after the ship has sailed, 10,000 coches is charged against the Company.

The Chinese are the only foreigners besides the Dutch who are allowed to trade to Japan. Formerly they frequented the port of Osacca, but they now use that of Nangasaki. This trade formerly occupied 200 China junks annually; but in 1684 it being discovered that the Chinese Christians introduced books of their religion in the bales of merchandize, the number of vessels was limited to seventy, and they are subject to the same strict restraints as the Dutch.* They import raw silk, woollens, sugar, nankeens, furs, hardware, turpentine, tin in ingots, myrrh, agates, calembars, camphire,

* Krusenstern says the present number is only twelve.

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phire, and ginger; and take off copper in bars, gold, japanned ware, &c.

The Chinese also carry on some direct trade between Japan and the Philippines. At the former they take in raw silk, gold, copper, and iron, which they exchange at the latter for spices, silver, and sugar.

ISLES OF SANTA CRUZ.

East of New Holland, a well defined archipelago seems as if placed by nature to unite the Papua Islands and New Holland with the Grand Polynesia; it is composed of three divisions. 1. The Isles of Santa Cruz, of Mendana; 2. the New Hebrides, of Cook; and 3. the New Caledonia, of the same navigator.

The Isles of *Santa Cruz* were visited by Carteret in 1769, and named by him Queen Charlotte's Islands, although he certainly had no claim to the discovery; to the respective islands he gave the names of Lord Howe, Edgecumbe, Keppel, Swallow, and Volcano. The French navigators, D'Entrecastaux and Labillardière, have given a more detailed description of them. The hills are of moderate elevation, and chiefly calcareous; they are thickly wooded and abound in the cocoa and cabbage palms. The natives seem to be of two races, one much fairer than the other, and with Malay features, but both have woolly or frizzled hair: possibly these dif-

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ferences may be owing to a mixture of the *Papua* and *Polynesian* races.

Santa Cruz, of Mendana, the Egmont Isle of Carteret, is the largest of the group, and has several good ports.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

The NEW HEBRIDES are an extensive chain laying N.N.W. and S.S.E. between the latitudes of 13° and 23° S. The largest of them is evidently the *Espiritu Sancto*, of Mendana, discovered in 1616. Bougainville, who visited some of them in 1768, gave them the name of the *Grand Cyclades*; and finally Cook, in 1774, explored them in detail, and attached to them the name of New Hebrides. A striking difference between these islands and those of the Pacific Ocean in general, is their coasts being bold and free from reefs.

Espiritu Sancto and Mallicola are detached from the general chain on the N.W. The former is twenty-two leagues long, N.W. and S.E. and twelve leagues broad; the coasts, particularly on the west, rise to a great height almost perpendicularly from the sea, but in the interior are fine plains and vallies, well cultivated. On the east is the Gulf of *St. Philip and St. James*, where in the port of *Vera Cruz*, and near the River *Jordan*, both Mendana and Cook anchored, and where the Spanish navigator contemplated

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templated the foundation of a New Jerusalem; but before the first cabin was finished, a dispute with the savages, and the want of provisions obliged him to return to America.

Mallicolo, S.E. of Espritu Sancto, is ten leagues long, mountainous, well wooded and watered. The natives appear to be a different race from the other islanders, and are described as more nearly resembling baboons than human beings. Their hair is frizzled; and their lauguage a barbarous combination of consonants, aspirations, and hissings, that defy the vocal organs of an European to imitate. They are probably of the New Holland race, some individuals of which chance might have thrown on this island.

The other islands of this archipelago form a close connected chain, beginning with the Sir Joseph Banks's Islands of Captain Edwards, on the north, to which succeed in succession *Pic d'Etoile*, of Bougainville, probably the *Nuestra Sennora de Luz*, of Mendana. *Aurora*, of Bougainville, *Cordoba*, of Mendana, is twelve leagues long, and rises to a high mountain. Whit-Sunday Island, of Bougainville, *Clementina*, of Mendana, is eleven leagues long; the French navigator observed many plantations and fires on it. Leper's Island, twenty leagues in circuit. Ambrym, a volcano that emits white smoke, appeared to Cook fertile and cultivated, is seventeen leagues in circuit. Paoom, three or four leagues long; rises like a haycock to a considerable height.

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Apee, Maskelyne, Shepherds, three or four small islands. Two Hills, Hinchinbroke, Montagu, Three Hills, Sandwich, twenty-five leagues in circuit described by Cook as mountainous in the interior, but with fine plantations of cocoa palms, and fields of a golden colour resembling our gueret.

The southern group of these islands is detached from the rest, and is composed of five islands, of which Erromango is the northernmost, and is twenty-five leagues in circuit. Tanna, about the same size, was the only one of the archipelago examined by Cook in detail, while he remained at Port Resolution, a small but good harbour on the north side. It has a volcano in a state of eruption, abounds in hot springs and sulphur, and also has beds of clay mixed with aluminous earth, blocks of chalk and *tripoli*, and appearances of copper.

The island is composed of ranges of hills rising in gradation from the sea, and separated by fine valleys, covered with bannana and other fruit trees, sugar-canes, sweet potatoes, &c.; and the natives produced several nutmegs with the mace on. The English navigator also shot a pigeon of the species found at the Moluccas, in whose crop was a whole nutmeg, so that there can be no doubt but this island possesses this spice.

The inhabitants of Tanna have a nearer resemblance to the New Hollanders than to the Polynesians. They have the colour and the hair of

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of the former, and like them thrust bones and reeds through the cartilage of the nose, and daub their faces with different coloured clays. On the other hand, their bows, slings, clubs, and darts, made with great elegance, are similar to those used by the islanders farther east. The women are kept in a state of slavery, and soon loose the charms they possess in youth. Very different from the libertine Otaheitians, they rejected the addresses of their European visitors.

Erronan and Anatom are the southernmost islands of the chain, and are both very high. Walpole, Mathew, and Hunter's Islands, lay in a direction east and west from the south end of New Caledonia, and may be considered as a continuation of the New Hebrides.

NEW CALEDONIA.

New Caledonia was discovered by Captain Cook in 1774, but he visited its east coast only. D'Entrecastaux and several English navigators have since touched at, and defined its limits. Its extent is eighty-seven leagues in length N.W. and S.E., and ten in breadth. It is traversed longitudinally by a ridge of hills rising gradually towards the E.S.E. to the height of 3,200 feet. The principal rocks are quartz, mica, stealite, green schorl, granite, and iron stone. Columns of basaltes have also been found; and there is reason

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reason to suppose the existence of rich veins of metal.

The principal vegetables of this island are the cocoa palm and bread fruit: the plantain, sugar cane, and arum are also cultivated, and the natives eat the roots and buds of several shrubs and plants. The island had neither hogs nor dogs before the arrival of Europeans. The commonest birds are a very large pigeon, a new variety of the crow, and pies.

The inhabitants are described by D'Entrecastaux as resembling the natives of Van Diemen's Land, with hair almost woolly, the skin very greasy, and lips as thick as those of the African negro. Cook praises the mildness of their character and the chastity of their women, while the French navigator describes the men as cruel, perfidious, and inclined to theft; and the women as bartering their favours for a nail. Their arms are lances, clubs, and slings, and there is no doubt of their being cannibals, having been seen to devour the flesh of a dead child. Their common food is shell-fish, fish and roots; and besides they eat a species of spider, and a kind of friable green earth. The women have no other covering than a girdle of the filaments of bark. The men wear garlands of leaves, and the hair of the *vampire*, or great bat, round the head. Their huts have the forms of bee-hives, with a kind of folding doors sculptured. Their language is harsh and disagreeable, and has no analogy with that of Polynesia. The only known harbours are that on the east

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east coast, visited by Cook, and Port St. Vincent, on the S.W., formed by islands of some size, within the coral reef that extends along all the S.W. coast, and which, with the exception of a few breaks, consists of a steep wall to seaward, level with the water's edge. This reef extends from the latitude of 23° S. out of sight of the land. Other reefs lay in a direction N.W. from the north end of the island to a great extent.

The Isle of Pines, off the south end of New Caledonia, has its name from being covered with trees of this species, which grow to the height of 100 feet. On the east are the isles Beaupre and Loyalty, forming a group surrounded by a reef, with a safe channel between them and the great island.

Between New Holland and New Caledonia are several coral reefs, on one of which his Majesty's ship Porpoise and the Cato transport were wrecked. It extends four or five leagues north and south, and about one mile broad. It is covered at high water, except in three spots. East of the reef eight or nine miles, is a small island, one mile long, and twenty feet above the level of the sea, which produces several vegetables of the succulent kind, the decomposition of which, together with the dung of birds, is the only soil. It has no water but what the soil absorbs from the rain, and this is unfit to drink, from the alkaline salts it imbibes from the sea birds' ordure.

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NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand was discovered by Tasman, in 1642, but his researches were confined to a small portion of the N.W. coast, and it remained unvisited by any other European until 1769, when Surville anchored in Port Lauriston, on the east coast. To Captain Cook we are indebted for the knowledge of its being two islands, separated by a strait, which bears his name, and which is five leagues wide.

The northernmost island, named by the natives *Tavai-Poenammou*, is 190 leagues long; and the southernmost, called *Eaheianomawe*, is 200 leagues. The breadth varies from ten to sixty leagues. The islands taken together are about the size of Great Britain.

A chain of mountains runs through both islands, whose highest summit, named by Cook Mount Egmont, is covered with perpetual snow, and hence was calculated to have an elevation of 14,000 feet. Near Cook's Strait the bases of the mountains were observed to be composed of sandstone in horizontal strata, and traversed by veins of quartz also horizontal. The other rocks are marble, jasper, granite, with black mica and white quartz. Volcanic substances were also observed, such as basaltes, pumice stone, volcanic glass, &c. Frequent earthquakes likewise denote the existence of internal fires. The only signs of metals are in a ferruginous ochre, and the green jasper,

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or serpent stone, of which the natives make their weapons and tools.

The climate of these islands is temperate and agreeable. In Queen Charlotte's Sound, in the month of February, answering to our August, the thermometer did not rise higher than 66°; and in June, corresponding with our December, the lowest fall was 48°. N.W. winds are the most frequent, and are usually accompanied by fine weather; S.E. and S.W. winds, on the contrary, being cloudy weather and rain.

The mountains give rise to abundance of springs, which uniting, form streams of large volume, rushing down the hills, and often precipitating themselves in magnificent cascades, of which one in Dusky Bay is thirty feet broad, and falls from a height of 900 feet. This abundance of water nourishes a luxuriant vegetation, the mountains of both islands being covered with large trees, chiefly of two species; one a kind of pine, fit for masts, and the other, which grows to an enormous size, resembles the maple.

Near the coast are various other trees, two of which bear fruit the size of a plumb, eaten by the natives; and near 400 plants, before unknown to botanists, were collected here by Captain Cook. Amongst them is the New Zealand flax (*phormium tenax*), and a shrub whose leaf is a perfect substitute for the tea of China. The natives of the northern island cultivate sweet potatoes, yams, gourds, and a species of fern, whose root is eaten. Wild celery, cresses, and other antiscorbutic plants are

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are abundant, and the common nettle and night-shade grow here to the size of shrubs.

The only quadrupeds found on the islands when Cook visited them, were a kind of fox dogs, in a state of domesticity, and rats. Of land birds there is a great variety, particularly of the parrot tribe. The others most common are large wood pigeons, cuckoos, gross beak, and a small bird called by the English the mocking bird, which fills the woods with a thousand different notes; land rails, snipes, plovers, and some small birds were also seen. The aquatic birds are small penguins, sea pies, shags, gulls, wild ducks, herons, and sand larks.

Fish is abundant, chiefly mullet, elephant fish, soles, flounders, silver bream, large congers, cole fish, gurnards, skate, hake, nurses, barracootas, small mackarel, parrot fish, leather jackets, and in the rivers small salmon trout. The shell fish are large muscles and cockles, small oysters, perriwinkles, limpets, whelks, sea-ears, and cray fish.

The reptiles are lizards, and, according to the account of the natives, snakes of an enormous size. Insects are not numerous, and consist of dragon flies, scorpion flies, butterflies, grasshoppers, black ants and sand flies.

The New Zealanders are of the Polynesian race; their colour being a deep brown, with a yellowish or olive tinge, and their features various, but in general round, with full, though not thick lips, and their noses full towards the point; teeth broad, white, and even; eyes large and rolling; hair black, strait, and strong, is commonly cut short

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short behind, with the rest laid on the crown of the head. The women are generally smaller than the men, but have few peculiar graces either in form or figure to distinguish them.

The dress of both sexes is alike; consisting of an oblong garment, five feet long and four broad, made from the flax-plant, which seems to be their most complex manufacture, and is executed by knotting. They bring two corners of this garment over the shoulders, and fasten it on the breast with the other part, which covers the body, and about the belly it is tied with a girdle of mat. Over this garment they wear mats, reaching from the shoulders to the heels. By way of ornament they fix on their heads feathers, or combs of bone or wood, adorned with pearl shells, and in their ears are hung pieces of jasper, bits of cloth, beads, &c. The septum of the nose is likewise pierced, and ornaments sometimes worn in it. They wear their beards long, but are fond of having them shaved.

Some are tatooed on the face, and the women on the chin or lips. Both sexes smear their faces with red paint. The women wear necklaces of sharks' teeth, bone, &c.

They live in societies of forty or fifty, in contiguous huts, which latter are, comparatively, palaces to those of the New Hollanders, being generally about fifteen feet long, seven broad, and four feet high, constructed of posts and bullrushes. Such an assemblage of huts is named a *hippa*, and is usually situated on an elevation of difficult

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difficult access. Their furniture consists in some small baskets or bags, which hold their fishing hooks and other trifles. They subsist principally by fishing, either with nets or hook and line; the hooks are of wood and bone and very rude, but the nets and lines are excellent. Their canoes are well built of planks, raised on each other, and fastened with strong withies, which also bind a long narrow piece outside the seams to prevent their leaking. Some are fifty feet long, and broad enough to sail without an outrigger, but the smaller sort usually have one, and two of them are sometimes lashed together. They carry from five to thirty men. Their paddles are five feet long; their sail is of mat and triangular, the broadest side upwards.

Their method of cooking is by baking, for they are entirely ignorant of the art of boiling. They use two kinds of the fern root as a substitute for bread. Shell-fish also constitutes a considerable part of their diet, which is occasionally varied by rails, penguins, and shags. They also breed a considerable number of dogs for food. Their method of feeding is equally dirty as their persons, and their greatest delicacy is stinking train oil, and the blubber of seals.

Their tools are of stone, and made nearly in the shape of our carpenters' adzes, chizels, and googes. They also use shells, flints, and splinters of jasper as knives, and a shark's tooth serves as an auger.

The New Zealanders are alive to the least supposed

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posed affront or injury, perfidious and blood-thirsty, as has been cruelly proved by the many instances of their horrible massacres of the Europeans, who have been off their guard, trusting to their apparent friendly intentions.

Their government appears to be an hereditary aristocracy, the chiefs advising with the elders in their warlike expeditions. The people seem to be divided into three classes, the priests, the warriors, and the multitude, or lower order.

Their weapons are spears, clubs, halberts, and stones; the former are of hard wood from five to thirty feet long. The club is of an elliptical shape eighteen inches long, made of wood, jasper, or the bone of some sea animal, and is their principal weapon of offence. The halbert is five or six feet long. Before a battle commences, they join in a war song, and work themselves up to a kind of phrenzy.

They mourn for the loss of their friends by lamentations and cutting their faces with shells; they also carve small pieces of jasper into the resemblance of human figures, with eyes of pearl shell, and hang them about their necks as memorials of the deceased.

The children are early initiated in all the practices of their fathers. Their principal amusement is singing the transactions of their ancestors, and other subjects, and blowing in a sort of flute through the nostril.

The language of New Zealand is a dialect of

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the general one of Polynesia, differing but very little from that of the Society Islands.

The New Zealanders seem to live under continual apprehensions of being destroyed by each other; there being few of their tribes that have not, as they think, sustained wrongs from some other tribe, which they are continually on the watch to revenge, and however long a time may have elapsed before an opportunity offers, it is never forgotten. They steal on their enemies in the night, and if they find them unguarded, which, however, is seldom the case, kill every one indiscriminately, without distinction of age or sex. When the massacre is completed, they either feast on the bodies on the spot, or carry off as many as they can and devour them at home, with acts of brutality too shocking to be described. If they are discovered before they can execute their bloody purpose, they generally steal off again, and sometimes are pursued and attacked by the other party in their turn. To give quarter or take prisoners makes no part of their military law, so that the vanquished can only save their lives by flight. This perpetual state of war, and destructive method of conducting it, operates so strongly in producing habitual circumspection, that a New Zealander is hardly ever found off his guard by night or day. Indeed no other man can have such powerful motives to be vigilant, as the preservation of both body and soul depends on it; for according to their system of belief, the soul of those

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those whose flesh is devoured by the enemy, are doomed to a perpetual fire, while the souls of those whose bodies have been rescued, as well as of all those who die a natural death, ascend to the habitations of the gods. The dead bodies of their friends they bury, but those of their enemies, if they have more of them than they can eat, they throw into the sea.

They have no places of public worship, nor do they ever assemble together with this view, but they have priests, who alone address the gods in prayer for their temporal welfare.

Polygamy is practiced among them, and it is not uncommon for one man to have two or three wives who are sisters. The women are marriageable at a very early age, and it should seem that one who is unmarried is but in a forlorn state, for she can with difficulty procure a subsistance, and is without a protector, though in constant want of a powerful one. Although liberal of their favours, the New Zealand females do not carry licentiousness to the same extent of depravity as the Otaheiteans.

The topography of New Zealand has little interesting to the general reader. To the Cape North of the northern isle succeeds the Bay of Islands, surrounded by picturesque shores, and Plenty Bay, named from the fruitfulness of the neighbouring country. Poverty Bay, south of Cape East, has its name from its sterile shores, and to it succeeds Hawke's Bay and Queen Charlotte's Sound.

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Port Molyneux, at the S.E. end of the southern Island, is a safe harbour, as is Dusky Bay on the S.W.

The Snares and Lord Auckland's islands, south of New Zealand, seem to be a continuation of the mountains of the latter.

At a considerable distance from the east coast of New Zealand, and parallel to it, is a chain of islands, of which the principal and northernmost was discovered by Captain Broughton, and named Chatham Island. It is twelve leagues long, rising gradually from the sea to pleasant looking hills covered with trees. It is inhabited apparently by the same race as New Zealand. The other islands of this chain are the Bounty Island, Penantipodes, and Bristol.

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NOTES TO VOL. III.

(A)—Page 42.

Almost from the first doubling of the Cape by De Gama until the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Indian seas were infested by pirates, composed of the ruffians of all nations, but chiefly English and Dutch. Their depredations at last causing preparations to be made for exterminating them, they sought refuge on the north coast of Madagascar, from whence they continued their piracies until about 1722, when a combined force of French, Dutch, and English attacked them, destroyed their ships, and obliged them to evacuate their chief rendezvous at St. Mary's island, and retreat to the main land of Madagascar; and here piracy being no longer in their power, they made up the measure of their iniquities by introducing the slave trade, which has ever since continued to depopulate the island by wars and exportation.

(B)—Page 61.

The West India islands seem to be the proper region of the land crab (*cancer ruricola*), whose habitudes are extremely singular. The habitual places of their retreat are the most inaccessible mountains, where they either form holes in the ground or in the decayed trunks of trees, and from hence they regularly make an annual journey to the coast to cast their spawn. They are described as commencing their march in April or May, when the rains begin, and as moving forward in three divisions with all the regularity of an advancing army; the strongest males forming an advanced guard to clear the way, the main body being com-

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posed of the females, forming columns of fifty paces broad and three miles long, while the rabble, consisting of males and females, the sick and weak, bring up the rear, and each division marches at the distance of three or four days from the other. Their march is usually performed at night, but they also proceed during the day, when it rains: and when the sun has heated the ground, they make a general halt, and wait the cool of the evening. Their course for the sea is as direct as if they steered by a compass, nor do they ever turn aside, unless some invincible obstacle, such as a wide and rapid river, lies in their way, when they wind along its banks until they find a spot where they can force a passage. When frightened, they march back in a tumultuous manner, holding up one of their nippers as if in defence, and also try to intimidate their enemies, by making a clattering noise with these members. They are sometimes two or three months on their journey to the coast, where, the moment they arrive, they rush to its margin, and let the waves wash over them three or four times, which, it is thought, is intended to bring the spawn into maturity. After thus bathing, they again retreat to the land, until the proper degree of maturity is reached, when they again seek the water, and casting their spawn in the wave, leave it to chance to finish the process of development. The fish, whose instinct seems to warn them of the feast preparing for them, crowd in shoals to the shore, and are thought to devour two-thirds of the eggs. Those which escape are hatched under the sand; and in a few days, millions of little crabs are seen quitting the shore, and making for the mountains. The old animals are so weakened by the spawning, that being unable to return, they dig holes in the sand, which they close with earth and leaves, to keep out the air, and in them they cast their shells, almost in a whole state, and remain naked for six or eight days, at the end of which they have become extremely fat, and are deemed delicious food. When the new shell has acquired a sufficient hardness, they commence their march home. Though their general food is vegetables, when one of them is, from sickness or accident, unable to proceed, the rest fall on and devour him. In their journeys, and while

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while on the coast, great numbers of them are taken by the negroes, who consider them as great dainties.

(C)—Page 145.

The following table of the winds and weather on the coasts of India, will give some idea of the climate.

MALABAR COAST.

From the middle of September to the middle of October, strong west winds, much rain, and thunder.

Middle of October to middle of November, westerly winds, less rain, but much thunder.

Middle of November to middle of December, winds change to the east, and blow strong through the Anamalay passage, or gap in the Ghauts. The night air is cold, and exposure to it produces a disease, called *Vatum*, in which the legs contract, and become stiff and withered. In the course of this period, there are intervals of heavy rain.

Middle of December to middle of January, strong south winds, heavy fogs and dews, but no rain; air cool.

Middle of January to middle of February, strong east winds, no rain, but heavy dews.

Middle of February to middle of March, strong east winds, light dews.

Middle of March to middle of April, light east breezes, hot weather, rivulets become dry. Maximum of the thermometer 105 at Cochin.

Middle of April to middle of May, winds change to the west, with heavy showers and thunder.

Middle of May to middle of June, moderate west winds. At the end of May, the rains are moderate, with showers of hail. At the end of this period the rains are violent, with much thunder.

Middle of June to middle of July, strong west winds and heavy rains; heat moderate.

Middle of July to middle of August, west winds, and rains increase;

crease; and throughout this period there is scarce an hour of dry weather.

Middle of August to middle of September, wind, rain, and thunder abate.

Buchanan's Journey.

The variations of the thermometer at Bombay are between 96 and 64, the latter at Christmas. At Surat the variations are 96 and 59.

At Calcutta the following is the range of the thermometer for the months prefixed.

	Maxim.	Min.	Winds.
October	94	70	North.
November	89	60	North.
December	88½	52	N.E.
January	85	63	N.E.
February	92	68	
March	104	72	South.
April	110		

(D) —Page 151.

The inhabitants of the Delta of the Indus are named Itchingonas. According to modern researches, they are the root of the race of vagabonds that are dispersed over Europe, under the names of gypsies, Bohemians, &c. and who excite a mixed sentiment of disgust, curiosity, and interest, by the abject erratic life which they lead, by their address in certain employments, their noisy gaiety, their savage dances, and pretended knowledge of futurity. The dispersion of this race is supposed to have taken place in consequence of the cruelties of Tamerlane in 1400.

(E)—Page 159.

The Company's vessels of war are as follow:

1 ship of 24 guns.
4..... 14 to 16.
2 brigs.. 12 to 14.
8 schooners, &c. 10 to 12.

} This force is nominally commanded by a commodore, and its intention is to protect the coasting native vessels from the pirates, and to convey dispatches.

(F)

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(F)—Page 175.

The cocoa palm has been noticed by all voyagers and travellers to India for its various and great utility to the natives. Of the trunks are made canoes, and the posts and rafters for buildings, of which the leaves form the thatch, or are worked into mats, and sometimes serve to write on by punctuation with an iron style. The summit of the tree affords a delicate vegetable, which is eaten as cabbage, where the trees are so numerous as to be of little value, for the cutting this summit destroys the tree. The fibrous husk that surrounds the nut, is named coir, and is made into cordage and oakum, and even into canvass; the shell serves as a drinking cup and for a measure; the kernel is a nourishing food, and is consumed in great quantities by the natives in their curries, while by expression it affords an oil, used in cooking as well as in anointing the hair, burning, &c. The water or milk contained within this nut is a pleasant and refreshing beverage, and from the tree itself is procured by incision, a whitish, sweetish liquor, called by Europeans palm wine, and by the Indians toddy, soury, &c. which, when quite fresh, is a very wholesome and agreeable drink, but when kept twenty-four hours, it ferments, becomes sour, and forms a good vinegar. From this liquor is produced, by distillation, the spirit named arrack, which is more esteemed than that from rice. This same liquor, boiled with quick lime, thickens into a syrup, and which by evaporation is brought into a concrete sugar, named Jagree, which, though greatly inferior to *cane* sugar, is employed in the preparation of sweetmeats, of which the Indians consume vast quantities.

(G)—Page 202.

"The attention is first arrested by a Hindoo pagoda, covered with sculpture, and cut out of a single mass of rock. It is twenty-six feet high, nearly as long, and about half as broad. Near this structure, the surface of the rock is covered with figures in bas relief, particularly a gigantic one, of *Chrisna* with his favourite *Arjoon*, both resembling skeletons. Several figures of animals are also observed, particularly one said to be intended

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tended for a lion, but which has little resemblance to that animal. Near them are pagodas of brick, surrounded by a wall; and adjoining are two large excavations in the rock, in one of which is also a sculptured representation of Chrisna attending the herds of *Ananda*, and other sculptured scenes.

"In ascending the rock, a circular stone is passed under, whose diameter is twenty-seven feet, and so placed by nature, that it appears as if ready to slip from its place, and crush the passenger.

"In another place is a spacious excavated temple of *Siva*, in which are gigantic and ill formed statues of Siva and other Hindoo deities.

"Washed by the surf is another pagoda of stone, and far out in the sea are vast masses of stone, which, according to the account of the Brahmans are the remains of the ancient city, which was incredibly large and magnificent."—*Asiatic Researches, vol. 5.*

(H)—Page 250.

The Ladrones are of the Tartar-China race. Their vessels mount ten to twelve carriage guns. Their depredations are chiefly on the Chinese trading junks, the European vessels frequenting those seas being generally too strong for them. A Chinese squadron of war junks sometimes cruises among the islands; but every precaution is generally taken to avoid a rencounter, and for this purpose the war junks beat their gongs night and day, in order, as it would appear, to give the piratical notice to keep out of their way.

(I)—Page 264.

The antiquity of the Chinese compass seems to be proved by the characters painted on it, which mark the system of the most ancient mythology of China and the elements of its judicial astrology; and moreover its division into twenty-four instead of thirty-two rhumbs or points, affords a strong corroboration of this antiquity, for had they borrowed it from Europeans, they would scarcely have made this alteration. The needle of the Chinese compass is not above an inch in length and a line in thickness; it

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it traverses on a pin fixed in the center of a hollow formed in a bit of cork or wood, four inches in diameter, and round the hollow on the upper surface are drawn several circles and concentric lines, each of which is marked with a character. The inner circle has eight divisions, marking the four cardinal and four intermediate points, and which also denote the eight astrological divisions of the solar day. The second circle has twenty-four divisions, marking the twenty-four hours; the third also twenty-four divitions, denoting the twenty-four points of the horizon, of fifteen degrees each. The fourth, or outermost circle, has sixty divisions, denoting the Chinese *cycle* of sixty years, by which they regulate their chronology. This circle has also the signs appertaining to mythology and physics.

The Chinese believe that the needle is animated by the divinity of navigation, and hence, on their arrival in port, the compass is deposited in the joss house or sanctuary. In steering, when the ship's head is brought to the course, the compass is fixed in sand, in such a manner that the needle points to the marked point of the course, and it is the business of the steersman to keep it thus by the management of the helm. The Chinese ascribe the polarity of the needle to a southern instead of a northern influence; "for," says the Emperor Kaung-shee, in a dissertation on this instrument, "as all action languishes and is almost interrupted at the pole, it is less reasonable to suppose that the magnetic principle comes from thence." For this reason the *lubber's* point in the Chinese compass denotes the south.

The Japanese compass has four grand divisions, answering to the four cardinal points, and each of these is subdivided into three, making twelve subdivisions, to which are given the names of the signs of the Zodiac, viz.

North, Koutta.	South, Minou-ami.
1 Division, Ue, the rat.	1 Div. Oama, the horse.
2 ——— Oas, the ox.	2 —— Foo tooci, the sheep
3 ——— Tora, the tiger.	3 —— Saroo, the monkey.
East, Fagasi.	West, Nis.
1 Division, Oa, the hare.	1 Div. Ton, the fowl.
2 ——— Tats, the dragon.	2 —— Mov, the dog.
3 ——— Mi, the serpent.	3 —— I, the wild hog.

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(K)—Page 323.

The *Salangane* of the Malays, *Hirundo esculenta* of Linnæus, is the bird that forms the nests so much esteemed by the Chinese. This bird was long very imperfectly known to naturalists, and its nests the subject of much difference of opinion; both are, however, now so well known, that no doubt remains respecting them. The Salangane is a very small species of swallow, its length not exceeding two inches and a half, and the substance of its nests is the spawn of fishes, which the bird collects while skimming the surface of the sea, or on the shore, where it is washed up by the waves; and the threads of which seem hanging to the bill of the bird, gave rise to the idea of its drawing it from its breast. The nests are found adhering to the sides and roofs of caverns in the rocks, each nest containing two to three eggs or young ones, laid on soft feathers, apparently taken from the breast of the parents. The taste of these nests is like insipid isinglass, and the great credit they enjoy in China is owing to their supposed nutritious quality, and consequent power of restoring debilitated debauchees. The strong meat broth in which they are dissolved, however, has probably the greatest share in these effects.

These birds nests are only found on the coasts of the Cochin Chinese empire and in the Malay Archipelago. Towards the end of July, or the beginning of August, the Cochin Chinese visit the rocks of the Paracels,* and others near their coasts, to collect these nests.

The

* The Paracels are a long chain of low coral islands and shoals, at the distance of forty to sixty leagues from the coast of Cochin China. Two or three of the islands have cocoa palms and fresh water. The others most noticed of the numerous coral reefs and islands in the China Sea, are the Macclesfield bank, on which all ships strike soundings sailing to or from China. The least depth over it is eight fathoms. The Scarborough shoal, halfway between the Macclesfield and coast of Luconia; it has some dry rocks on it. The Pratas, or Praters reef, is considerable, with a coral island, covered with brushwood, at the N.W. extremity. Many ships have been wrecked on this dangerous island.

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The Trepang, biche de Mer, Morntia, balaté, or sea snail, is, like the birds nests, found principally among the reefs of the Paracels and Malay islands. The trepang is brought up by divers, and the preparation consists in opening and cleaning them, then boiling, and, finally, smoaking them with green wood.

(L)—Page 507.

The date of the first introduction of tea into Europe is not ascertained, some ascribing it to the Dutch in 1610; but it is not likely that the Portuguese should have visited China for more than a century before this period, without having brought some of this commodity to Portugal. The Dutch were, however, certainly the first who made tea an object of commerce, and by them all Europe was supplied for near a century; the consumption was, however, very small, and chiefly as medicine, and as such only is it still used in the greatest part of the continent, where it is chiefly sold by apothecaries. The small quantity consumed on the continent is, however, made up by its use in England, where it forms the universal repast of high and low, of the duchess and the fish-wife. The use of tea in England is dated between 1650 and 1660, it being first noticed in the latter year, when a tax of eight pence a gallon on tea made and sold (in coffee houses) was amongst the excise duties granted to Charles II.—In 1689, the duty on made tea was changed for one of five shillings on the pound weight.

The first import of tea by the English Company was in 1669, and only amounted to 169 lbs. from Bantam. From this period the imports were very irregular; thus, in 1685, 12,000 lbs. were brought into England from Madras and Surat, while in 1655 the quantity was only 65 lbs. In 1690, the import from China amounted to 41,000 lbs. and in 1700, 91,000 lbs. Since this latter year, the increase has been as follows, on the average of ten years.

1710

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	Imported.	Re-exported.
1710	100,000 lbs.	——— lbs.
1711-20	270,000	82,000
1721-30	750,000	240,000
1731-40	1,425,000	278,000
1741-50	1,800,000	346,000
1751-60	2,580,000	301,000
1761-70	5,858,000	1,761,000
1771-80	6,068,000	1,298,000
1781-90	12,317,000	1,988,000
1791-800	20,000,000	2,738,000
1801-10	24,000,000	3,609,000

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TABLE I.

MONIES, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES,

Of the Countries described in this Volume.

EAST COAST OF AFRICA.

In the Portuguese establishment on the East Coast of Africa, the monies in circulation are Spanish dollars, crusados, and testaons, four testaons being one crusado.

The weights are 20 brazil one Bahar = 240lbs. English.

RED SEA, MASOWAH.

3 boujouker . . 1 kebbeen
10 kebbeens . . 1 duvain
4 duvains . . . . 1 half a dahab
23 dahabs . . . . 1 patak.

The bakia is the usual gross weight, and is

The cubais a wooden measure containing 52 cubic inches of water.

SUEZ.

Monies.

12 copper burberis, 3 aspers . . . . . } 1 medina.
140 medinas 1 sequin zermabob
146 ——— 1 sequin fundunclee.

Weights.

		lb.
144 drams	1 rottole,	1¼
400 ———	1 oque.	

MOCHA.

Monies.

7 carats . . . . . 1 commassee
60 commassees 1 Spanish dollar.

Weights.

		lbs.
15 vakias	1 rattle	
40 vakias	1 maund	= 3
10 mounds . .	1 pazee	
15 pazees	1 bahar	= 450

Long Measure.

1 hand covid 18 inches
1 long covid 27
1 guz 25

Corn is measured by the tommand of 40 kellas = 170lb.
Liquids by the cuda of 8 messeaks = 2 gallons.

HODEIDA.

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HODEIDA.

The weights are of similar denomination to Mocha, but differ in quantity.

30 vakias .... 1 maund.
10 maunds.... 1 frazil *lbs.*
40 frazils .... 1 bahar of 813.

JUDDA.

Monies.

40 cruz ..... 1 duannee.

All the coins of Italy, Germany, and the Turkish dominions, Persia, Arabia and India, are in circulation at Judda, being brought by the pilgrims.

The denominations of weights are the same as at Mocha.

MUSCAT.

Monies.

30 budgerooks 1 mamoody
7½ mamoodies 1 Spanish dollar.

The weight is the maund of 24 cuchas.

BUSSORA.

Monies.

10 floos ..... 1 danine
10 danines .... 1 mamoody
100 mamoodies .. 1 tomand.

The Spanish dollar 7½ or 8 mamoodies.

Weights. lbs.

24 vakias 1 maund ateree 28½
76 —— .. 1 sophy 90½
117 —— .. 1 cutra 138 ⅞

The guz by measure is 37 inches 93 guz = 100 yards.

GOMBROON.

Monies.

2 shahees .. 1 mamoody
2 mamoodies 1 abassee
4 abassees .. 1 Spanish dollar
200 shahees .. 1 tomand.

SCINDY.

Monies.

18 cowries .. 1 pice
12 pice ..... 1 corival
50 corivals ... 1 rupee.

Weights.

4 pice..... 1 ana
16 anas..... 1 pucca seer
40 seers ..... 1 maund 74lbs. 5 oz.

Long Measure.

inches.
16 gorus..... 1 guz 34

Corn Measure.

4 tureis..... 1 cossa
60 cossas..... 1 carval of 22 maunds.

At Cambay, almonds are used as small coin, 60 almonds being 1 pice.

BOMBAY.

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BOMBAY.

Monies.

2 res .... 1 urdee
4 .... 1 doogany or pice
6 .... 1 doorea
8 .... 1 fuddea or double pice
25 .... 1 anna
16 annas .. 1 rupee, 2*s.* 6*d.*
5 rupees .. 1 paunchea
15 1 gold mohur.

Weights.

30 pice .... 1 seer
40 seers ... 1 maund = 28lbs. English.
20 maunds 1 candy.

The long measure is the cubit of 18 inches, and the guz of 24.

The Dry Measures are,

2 tiprees 1 seer
7½ seers .. 1 adowley
20 adowlies 1 parah
6¼ parahs 1 candy
4 candies 1 moorah

A bag of rice is 6 maunds or 168lbs.

CEYLON.

Monies.

4 pice .... 1 fanam
12 fanams .. 1 rupee
63 .. 1 star pagoda.

MADRAS.

Monies.

Accounts are kept in pagodas, fanams and cash, 80 cash being one fanam, but the number of fanams in a pagoda varies from 42 to 46. The coins current among Europeans, are the star pagoda, the rupee of 12 fanams and the fanam: the intrinsic value of the star pagoda is 7*s.* 5½*d.* A number of other pagodas are in circulation at Madras, differing in value from the star pagoda, *plus* or *minus*.

The Madras Weights are,

10 pagodas .. 1 pollam
8 pollams ... 1 seer
5 seers .... 1 vis
8 vis .... 1 maund = 25lbs.
20 maunds .. 1 candy.

The covid cloth measure is 18 inches.

Corn Measure.

8 ollucks .. 1 puddy
8 puddies .. 1 marcal
5 marcals .. 1 perah
400 marcals .. 1 garce
43 marcals = 15 Eng. bushels.

Liquid Measure.

8 ollucks .... 1 puddy
8 puddies .... 1 marcal, equal to 3 English gallons and one pint.

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CALCUTTA.

Monies.

Accounts are kept in current rupees, an imaginary coin, annas and pice, 12 pice being one anna, and 16 annas a rupee.

The current coins are,

12 pice ..... 1 anna
16 annas .... 1 sicca rupee.
16 rupees .... 1 gold mohur.

In the small transactions of the bazar cowries are used as money.

4 cowries being 1 gunda
20 gundas .... 1 pun
4 puns ..... 1 anna.

A lack of rupees is 100,000, and a crore 10 lacs.

Weights.

5 seers ..... 1 chittack
16 chittacks .. 1 seer
40 seers ..... 1 maund.

The factory maund is 74lbs. 10½ oz.

The bazar maund 82lbs. 2½oz.

Cloth Measure.

2 cubits.... 1 guz, or English yard.

Liquid Measure.

40 seers = 1 maund.

Corn Measure.

20 pallias = 1 soallee
16 soallees = 1 kahoon, or 40 maunds.

Piece goods are reckoned by the corge, or 20 pieces.

BIRMAN EMPIRE.

The Birmans have no coins, lumps of silver and lead being the current money.

Of weights 150 vis make 1 candy of 500lbs.

The measure of length is the paulgaut, 18 of which make 1 cubit or taim.

At Malacca, all Indian coins are current, and on the rest of the Malay peninsula and islands, the Spanish dollar is most in use.

At Achen the weights are,

20 buncals.... 1 catty
200 catties .... 1 bahar of 422lbs.15oz.

The bahar of Bencoolen is 560lbs.

BATAVIA.

Monies.

4 doits ..... 1 stiver.
2½ stivers .... 1 dubbeltje
3 dubbeltjes.. 1 schilling
4 schillings .. 1 rupee.

The Chinese weights are in general use.

MANILLA.

Accounts are kept in pesoes or pieces of eight (Spanish dollars), rials, and marvedis.

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34 marvedis..1 rial
8 rials.....1 pesoe

The Chinese weights are in use.

SIAM.

Monies.

800 cowries 1 phaunt
2 phaunies 1 maim or mace.
4 maims..1 tical
4 ticals ..1 tamlunt or tale.

2 ticals generally pass for a Spanish dollar.

The Weights are,

80 ticals ..1 catty
50 catties..1 pecul, 133lbs.

The Long Measures are,

2 soks....1 ken
2 kens....1 vouah, 6 feet 3⅓ inches.

CANTON.

Monies.

Accounts are kept in decimals.

10 cash....1 candareen
10 candareens 1 mace
10 mace....1 tale.

The only coined money of China is the cash of base metal cast with a hole to run a string through; one hundred, or the value of a mace being generally on one string. The tale is valued generally at 6s.8d. sterling. The usual coin in circulation is the Spanish dollar, which is always received into the Company's treasury in exchange for bills on England at 5s.; but those who want to get money for bills are often obliged to pay 8s. for the Spanish dollar.

Weights.

16 tales....1 catty
100 catties..1 pecul 133⅓lbs.

The covid or cubit long measure is 14¼ English inches.

The Japanese denominations of coins, weights and measures, are the same as the Chinese, but the Japanese have a number of gold, silver and copper circulating coins.

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TABLE II.

TABLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS.

Place.	Latitude	Longitude.
South Coast of Africa.	South.	
St. Helena Bay..	32 40	17 55 E.
Cape St. Martin		
Saldanha Bay ...	33 07	18 02
Cape Town (Good Hope)	33 58	18 34
Cape Lagullas, South Point of Africa	34 58	20 18
St. Sebastian Bay, Cape Infanta ..	34 55	20 54
Mossel Bay, Cape St. Blaize.....	34 10	22 18
Plettemberg Bay, Cape Delgado ..	34 6½	23 48
Algoa Bay, Rocky Cape.....	34 02	26 40
East Coast of Africa.		
Great Fish River..	33 25	
First point of Natal	32 22	29 25
Thirdpoint of Natal	30 15	31 22
Port Natal	29 55	31 28
Delagoa Bay, Cape St. Mary	25 58	33 15
Cape Corientes ...	24 1½	35 51
Inhamban	23 51	35 42
Cape St. Sebastian	22 0	36 0
Bazaruto Islands..	21 12	36 2
Chulawan Island..	20 36	35 4
Sofala Fort.....	20 15	34 45
Luabo River	19 0	
Quillimany River..	18 10	37 30
Fogo Island.....	17 12	38 52
Angoxo Islands, W.	16 40	39 40
Mosambique Fort .	15 1	40 47
Pico Frajos, or Craggy Mount..	13 30	40 50
Quarimba Island..	12 20	40 58
Cape Delgado	10 15	40 50
Quiloa.....	8 41	39 47
Zanzibar Island ..	6 6	39 33
Pemba Island	4 54	40 19
Mombas Island ..	4 4	40 2
Patta	2 2	41 24

Place.	Latitude	Longit.
East Coast of Africa.	South.	
Cuama Island	1° 2′	42° 0′ E.
Rogues River	0 12	43 2
Brava	1 12 N.	44 10
Magadoxa	2 28	46 30
Cape Bassas.....	4 58	49 20
Cape Delgado	10 11	51 42
Cape Dorfui	40 56	52 4
Cape Guardafui ..	11 50	51 32
Socotro, East-end	12 20	54 53
ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN SEA.		
Madagascar, East Coast.		
Fort Dauphin	25 58.	46 35
Tamatave.....	18 12	
Foul Point	17 41	49 36
St. Mary's Island..	17 05	50 25
Antongil Bay	16 25	50 23
Cape Ambre, N. point	12 2	49 24
West Coast.		
Cape St. Mary, S. point	25 40	45 16
St. Augustin's Bay	23 39	44 0
Mouroundava.....	20 10	
Cape St. Andrew..	16 2	45 16
Table Cape	15 43	46 6
Passandava	13 45	48 23
Anjuan Island of Comoro.....	12 15	44 34
Isle of Bourbon	20 52	55 27
——— St. Denis		
——— France, Port Louis	20 10	57 28
Roderigue Island..	19 41	63 10
Cargados Garajos Island	16 38	59 57
Glorieuse Island..	11 36	
Assumption Island	9 47	47 16
Aldabra Islands ..	9 30	46 26
Cosmoledo Islands .	9 50	48 20

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TABLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS. *(Continued.)*

Place.	Latitude.	Longitude.	Place.	Latitude	Longitude.
West Coast.			*South Coast of Arabia.*		
Juan de Nova Island	South. 10° 20′	52°40′E.	Maculla Bay	North. 14° 6′	
Providence Island	9 18	53 7	Cape Bogatshua	14 6	49°26′E.
Alphonzo Island	7 4	52 21	Kesseen Point	15 19	51 50
African Islands	4 55	54 9	Cape Fartarsh	15 27	52 20
Mahe, Seychelles Harbour	4 35	55 35	Dofar	17 0	54 34
Coetivy Island	7 12	56 32	Cape Morebat	17 0	55 4
Diego Garcia	7 22	72 22	Cape Chanseley	18 02	56 50
			Cape Isolette	19 0	58 12
Gulf of Socotra. African Coast.			Mazeira Island, S. W.	20 0	59 40
			Cape Rosalgat	22 22	60 00
Cape Felix	12 0N.	50 48	Cape Kuriat	23 26	
Burnt Island	11 22	47 50	Muscat	23 38	58 40
Barbora	10 25	45 8	Burka	23 43	57 59
Zeila			Cape Mussendom	26 22	56 40
Red Sea. African Shore.			*Persian Gulf. Arabian Shore.*		
Ras Rattah	14 56	40 55	Ras el Kima	25 49	55 34
Dhalac Island	15 32	40 15	El Katif	26 50	
Massowah	15 34	39 37	Grain		
Port Mornington	18 16	38 32	Bussora	30 30	47 33
Salaka	20 28	37 27			
Suakin	19 5	37 33	*Persian Shore.*		
Cape Calmez	21 28	37 25	Cape Jask	25 40	57 55
St. John's Island	23 38	36 10	Cape Bombarak	26 20	
Cape Nose	23 56	35 48	Ormus Island		
Cosire	26 8	34 15	Busheab Island	26 40	
Jaffatine Islands	27 6	33 46	Cape Verdistan	27 58	
Suez	30 0	32 28	Bushire	29 0	50 47
Arabian Coast.			*South Coast of Persia, Scindy, &c.*		
Babelmandeb Island	12 38	43 29	Chewabad Bay	25 15	60 24
Mocha	13 20	43 20	Cape Guadel	25 4	63 12
Loheia	15 44	42 44	Cape Arubah	25 7	65 24
Ghesan	16 50		Cape Monze	24 51	67 30
Kotumbul Island	17 55		Entrance of the Indus Laribundar	24 30	
Camfida	19 7	40 50	Crotchey (Scindy)	24 46	
Gabel Tar	15 32	42 0	Point Jigat, (Guzerat)	22 20	69 28
Judda	21 29	39 15	Diu	20 42	71 15
Yambo	24 10	38 21	Jafferabad	20 5	
Shadwan Island	27 36	33 54	Goapnaut Pagoda	21 12	
Ras Mahomed	27 43	34 15	Gogo	21 41	72 24
Tor	28 19	33 28	Baroach River	21 35	72 48
South Coast of Arabia.			Cambay	22 24	72 36
Aden	12 50	45 10			

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TABLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS. *(Continued.)*

Place.	Latitude.	Longitude.
South Coast of Persia.	North.	
Surat	21°11′	72° 5′E.
Demaun	20 22	73 2
Bassein	19 18	72 56
Malabar.		
Bombay Castle	18 56	72 58
Rajapour Harbour	18 16	
Bancoot	17 57	73 9
Severndroog	17 47	73 9
Geriah	16 31	73 25
Malwan Island	16 3	
Viggoria Rocks	15 51	73 30
Goa (Aguada Point)	15 29	73 53
Cape Ramas	15 5	74 6
Anjediva Island	14 44	
Merjee	14 30	74 31
Onore	14 19	74 34
St. Mary's Island	13 20	74 49
Mangalore	12 50	75 7
Mount Dilla	12 0	75 31
Cananore	11 51	75 41
Tellicherry	11 44	75 49
Mahe	11 41	
Calicut	11 15	76 5
Paniany	10 38	76 17
Cochin	9 57	76 29
Quilon	8 51	76 48
Anjenga	8 39	77 0
Cape Comorin	8 5	77 44
Tutecarin		
Kalpeni, S. Laccadiva	10 0	73 56
Betrapar, N. do.	11 35	72 34
Cherbaniany Bank	12 22	72 10
Malicoy Island	8 17	3 42
Maldiva N.	7 06	73 8
—— S.	0 38S.	73 25
Ceylon.		
Manar Island	9 0N.	
Negombo	7 15	
Colombo	6 57	80 0
Point de Galle	6 04	80 20
Matura	5 58	80 40
Great Bassas	6 11	81 38
Batticolo River	7 44	81 52
Trincomalee Flagstaff P.	8 33	81 24

Place.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Coromandel.	North.	
Point Calymere	10°18′	80° 0′E.
Negapatam	10 43	79 59
Tranquebar	11 0	79 58
Porto Novo	11 31	79 50
Cuddalore	11 40	79 54
Pondicherry	11 54	79 58
Fort St. George, Madras	13 04	80 22
Gondegam	15 20	
Masulipatam	16 11	81 13
Vizagapatam	17 42	83 26
Ganjam	19 22	85 10
Gagernaut	19 48	85 52
Bengal.		
Point Palmyras	20 44	87 6
Balasore	21 28	87 10
Sagor Island	21 34	
Calcutta, Fort William	22 35	88 28
Islamabad	22 21	91 45
Birman Empire.		
Aracan River	20 15	92 42
Cheduba Island	18 58	93 18
Cape Negrais	16 2	94 13
Diamond Island	15 52	94 19
Rangoon River	16 29	96 25
Tavay	13 33	98 6
Mergui	12 12	98 24
Tanaserim		
Junkseylon, N. point	8 9	98 20
Islands in the Bay of Bengal.		
Preparis	14 50	93 40
Great Cocos	14 5	93 26
Great Andaman, N. Point	13 34	93 9
S. Point	11 30	92 56
—— Port Cornwallis	13 18	93 0
—— Port Chatham	11 41	92 45
Little Andaman, S.E. Point	10 26	92 45

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TABLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS. (Continued.)

Place.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Islands in the Bay of Bengal.	North.	
Barren Island....	12° 17′	93°54′E.
Narcondam.....	13 24	94 12
Car-Nicobar	9 10	92 56
Nancowry Harbour	8 0	93 41
Great Nicobar, S. Point	6 45	94 0
Malay Peninsula and Islands.		
Queda.....	6 0	100 17
Prince of Wales' Island, Fort Cornwallis	5 24	100 21
Malacca	2 12	102 15
Point Romania ..	1 22	104 14
Sumatra, Achen..	5 36	95 26
Tappanooly	1 40	98 40
Padang	0 56S.	99 58
Bencoolen	3 48	103 28
Flat Point, S. Point	6 0	104 40
Palembang River..	2 52	104 50
Cocos Island, W. Coast Sumatra..	3 06N.	
Hog Island, N. Point	2 50	95 30
Pulo Banjak	2 18	96 48
Pulo Nyas, N. Point	1 18	97 09
Pulo Mintao, N. Point	0 2S.	98 10
Se Beeroo Island, N. Point.....	0 56	98 38
Se Pora, N. Point	1 55	99 50
North Poggy, N. Point	2 32	100 0
England, S. Point	5 27	102 17
Java.		
Strait of Sunda, Princes Island Peak	6 35	105 15
Java Head	6 48	105 11
Bantam	5 55	106 5
Batavia	6 09	106 52
Cheribon.....		
Surabaya.....	7 14	112 41
Bally Strait.....	8 30	114 37
Lombock Strait, South-entr.....	8 45	115 43
Java.	South.	
Alass Strait, South-entr.....	8°45′	116°38′E.
Sapy Strait, South-entr.....	8 40	119 20
Flores Strait		
Timor, East-end..	8 26	127 7
Delly	8 33	125 30
Coupang.....	10 9	124 5
Arroo Island	7 6	135 0
Banca Island, Monopin Hill	2 0S.	105 14
Lucipera Island ..	3 12	106 10
Carimati Island ..	1 33	108 49
Carimon, Java Island.....	5 50	110 34
Lubec Island	5 45	112 48
Solombo Island ..	5 33	114 28
Borneo, Sambas River	1 12N.	109 5
Succadana	1 16S.	109 18
Borneo	4 55N.	114 55
North Point	7 0	116 50
Banjaermassing ..	3 51	
Point Salatan, S. Point	4 10S.	114 42
Celebes, Macassar..	5 9	119 48
Bonthian.....	5 30	120 9
Bouton Island, S. Point	5 42	122 44
Sangir Island	3 28	125 44
Token, Bessy Island.....	5 15	123 33
Xulla Bessy, S.E. Point	2 28	125 58
Bouro, Cajeli....	3 15	137 5
Amboyna, Fort Victoria	3 42	128 11
Banda Harbour ..	4 31	130 0
Mysol	2 12	127 0
Ternate, Fort Orange	0 48N.	127 20
Philippines.		
Banguey	7 19	117 6
Great Sooloo	0 1	112 12
Mindanao, Samboangan	6 43	122 14

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TABLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS. *(Continued.)*

Place.	Latitude	Longitude.
Philippines.	North.	East.
Cape St. Augustin S.E. Point	6° 4′	126° 48′
Luconia Manilla..	14 36	120 52
Cape Bojador ..	18 42	121 0
Bashee Monmouth	20 20	122 21
China Sea.		
Malay Peninsula..		
—— Pulo Aore..	2 29	104 34
—— PuloTimoan	2 54	104 15
—— Pulo Varella	3 16	103 46
—— Pulo Brala	4 47	103 37
—— Tringano ..	5 21	103 4
Siam, Pulocara ..	8 29	
—— Juthia	14 18	100 50
Pulo Condore....	8 40	106 42
Cape St. James ..	10 18	107 10
Saigong.....	10 38	
Point Kega.....	10 41	108 4
Cape Padaran	11 21	109 0
Pulo Sapata	10 1	109 2
Cape Varella.....	12 55	109 24
Pulo Canton	15 23	109 6
Turon.....	16 5	108 15
Domea River Tonquin.....	20 50	
Hainan Island, south point	18 11	109 20
Taya Islands N. ..	19 56	111 10
Macclesfield Bank	15 17 16 21	114 40
Pratas Reef....	20 36 20 52	116 40
China.		
Tien Pak..	22 22	111 13
Grand Ladrone ..	21 57	113 44
Great Lema	22 1	114 12
Macao.....	22 10	113 32
Canton Factories	23 7	113 14
Pedro Branco....	22 20	114 58
Amoy	24 15	118 10
Chin-chew	24 54	118 40
Tinghay	26 10	119 57
Chusan Harbour..	30 26	121 41
Ningpo	30 13	121 6
Nankin	32 5	119 0
Shantung Promontory, south point	37 0	122 23

Places.	Latitude	Longitude.
China.	North.	East.
Cape Zeeatau	37° 36′	121° 6′
Tenchoo-foo	37 48	120 22
Pekin River	38 51	117 50
Quelpaert Island..	33 8	126 19
Daeglet Island ...	37 25	131 22
Tsa-Choni (Corea)	35 30	129 43
Ternay Bay.....	45 13	137 29
Suffrein Bay .. .	47 53	139 40
Castries Bay	51 29	142 0
Sagalin, Cape Aniwa	46 3	143 28
Sagalin, Cape Patience	48 50	144 45
Sagalin, Cape Elizabeth.....	54 20	142 45
Siberia.		
Uda River	55 18	
Ochotsk	59 20	143 12
Kamtschatka, Cape Lopatka	51 0	156 42
St. Peter and St. Paul.....	53 1	158 47
East Cape of Asia	66 5	169 44
Formosa Island, South Point ..	21 54	121 5
— North Point ..	25 18	121 14
PatchowIslands, S.	24 6	123 52
Lieu-Kiea Great, S.	26 3	128 18
Nangasaki.....	32 48	130 12
Cape Songaar Japan	41 16	140 14
Jesso, Peak de Langle	45 11	141 12
Kuriles Canal Nadeshda.....	48 2	150 32
Behrings Island ..	55 36	167 46
Papua Archipelago.		
New Guinea, Cape of Good Hope..	0 19S	132 26
—— Cape Rodney	10 3	147 46
Louisiade, Cape Deliverance....	11 21	154 26

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TABLE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITIONS. *(Continued.)*

Place.	Latitude	Longitude.	Place.	Latitude	Longitude.
Papua Archipelago.	South.	East.	*New Holland.*	South.	East.
New Britain, Port Montagu.....	6° 10′	150° 40′	Cape Northumberland.....	38° 3′	140°37′
New Ireland, Cartaret Harbour..	4 49	152 46	Gulf of Spencer, Cape Spencer..	35 17	136 52
Solomon's Islands, Port Praslin ..	7 25	157 52	Head of the Australian Bight..	31 30	131 7
Santa Cruz Island, Cape Byron....	10 41	166 4	Cape Arid	34 0	123 10
New Hebrides, Cape Quiros ...	14 44	167 15	Cape Le Grand ..	34 0	122 4
—— Port Sandwich Mallicolo	16 25	167 55	Point Hood	34 23	119 33
New Caledonia, N.W. Point ...	19 58	163 30	King George III. Sound	35 2	117 53
Queen Charlotte's Foreland.....	22 15	167 13	Point d'Entrecastaux.....	34 42	116 0
Balade Harbour ..	20 17	164 24	Cape Leeuwin....	34 20	115 6
Port St. Vincent	22 0	165 55	*(From Baudin's Voyage.)*		
New Zealand, Cape North	34 22	173 20	Swan River.....	32 4	115 46
Cape Maria Van Diemen	34 30	173 1	Red Point	27 42	114 0
Cape West	45 54	166 41	Dirk Hartog's Bay	25 30	113 2
Dusky Bay.....	45 47	169 28	Cape Cuvier	24 14	113 24
Cape East	37 42	181 0	Cape Murat	21 37	114 18
Chatham Island ..	45 53	183 3	Rosemary Island..	20 28	116 30
New Holland.			Depuch Island ..	20 36	117 33
Cape York.....	10 38	141 30	Cape Missiessy ..	19 12	121 15
Cape Flattery....	14 52	145 20	Cape Huygens....	17 58	122 11
Broad Sound.....	22 25	149 0	Cape Berthollet ..	17 10	123 5
Cape Capricorn ..	23 28	151 0	Isle Adele	15 27	123 4
Sandy Cape.....	24 42	153 15	Cape Voltaire	14 15	125 33
Glasshouse Bay, Cape Moreton..	26 58	153 27	Cape Rhuliere....	13 52	127 17
Port Stephens ...	32 43	152 10	Cape Fourcroy ...	11 58	130
Port Hunter	32 57	151 38	Cape Van Diemen	11 9	130 4
Broken Bay	33 34	151 27	*Gulf of Carpentaria.*		
Port Jackson.....	33 50	151 25	West Coast, Melville Bay	12 15	136 40
Botany Bay..,...	34 0	151 23	Isle Mornington, East Point	16 33	139 50
Jervis Bay.....	35 7	150 52	Head of the Gulf	17 42	140 18
Two-fold Bay....	37 5	150 6	East Coast, North Point.....	11 0	142 2
Cape Howe	37 30	150 7	Cape Keer-Weer	13 57	141 33
Wilson's Promontory.....	39 12	146 40	*Van Diemen's Island.*		
Western Port	38 39	145 27	Cape Pillar	43 14	148 9
Port Philip.....	38 18	144 38	HobartTown, Derwent	42 59	147 28
Cape Albany Otway.....	38 58	143 44	Port Dalrymple, Entrance.....	41 3	147 11

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INDEX TO VOL. III.

B. *Bay*—C. *Cape*—G. *Gulf*—I. *Island*—R. *River.*

	Page		Page		Page
Abdel Curia I.	32	Ampsac I.	206	Aracan	220
Abiad	73	Amur R.	271	Arama I.	28
Abord R.	52	Ana Kutan I.	311	Arfak Mount	422
Achen	359	Anadyr G.	288	Arimoa I.	421
Aclanshoi	278	Anal I.	96	Aripo	191
Adam's Bridge	181	Analaboo	360	Arkekow	72
Adam's Peak	182	Anamba I.	391	Armegon	205
Adele I.	453	Anapkoi R.	285	Arnheim B.	454
Aden	83	Anatom I.	521	Arroa I. Red Sea	81
Admiralty I.	426	Ancola	164	Arroa I. Malay	232
African I.	61	Andaman I.	317	Arroo I.	385
Aftan R.	91	Anderson's I.	389	Arthur I.	152
Aidab	73	Andrew, St. C. R.	42	Asab	72
Ailah	79	Angar I.	95	Ashtola I.	98
Akaba, El	79	Angaziga I.	45	Assassins R.	422
Alaid I.	311	Angenweeli R.	161	Assumption I.	60
Alamparva	202	Angoxo I.	25	Astada Bight	40
Alass Strait	381	Angria Bank	176	Atkis	309
Albany Ottway C.	447	Aniva G.	273	Atorku I.	330
Aldabra I.	60	Anjengo	174	Attuie	77
Aldoma R.	274	Anjera Point	372	Augustine, St. B.	36
Aletore	207	Anjeran I.	43	Auckland's I.	532
Algoa B.	20	Annesley B.	72	Aurora I.	519
Alipee	173	Anson I.	428	Australian Bight	449
Allester	228	Antigherria I.	161	Ava R.	222
Alphonso I.	61	Antongil B.	42	Avarella C.	244, 245
Amblau I.	397	Antonia, St. C.	83	Awataka B.	284
Amboyna I.	399	Aota R.	21	Ayer Rajah	361
Ambre C.	42	Anvil Rock	14	B.	
Ambryn	519	Anxious Bay	449	Babee I.	363
Amirante I.	61	Aore I.	234	Babee I.	384
Amoy	259	Apee I.	520	Babeh I.	403

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	Page
Babelmandeb	67, 75, 90
Babuyanes I.	413
Bahrein I.	96
Bajador C.	410
Baker's R.	20
Balam I.	227
Balambangan I.	389
Balanboeng	378
Balasore	208, 209
Balingtang I.	414
Ball's Pyramid	458
Bally Strait	389
Balu Main I.	325
Banca I. and Strait	368
Bancoot	161
Banda I.	403
Bandel	215
Bandel Agoa B.	39
Banditti I.	389
Bangri	226
Banguey I.	390
Banioowangi	378
Banjak I.	363
Banjermassing	386
Banks' Strait	455
Banks', Sir Joseph I.	519
Bankjbazar	214
Bankok	226
Bantam	371
Barbareen I.	189
Barcelore	167
Bareeby Harbour	78
Barmouth Creek	446
Barnegore	214
Baroach	153
Baroos	261
Barren I.	222
Barrier Reefs	444
Bashee I.	413
Bassas de India	43
Bassas Cape	20
Bassas de Pinda	26
Bassas, Ceylon	193
Basseen	157
Bassein R.	222
Bass's Strait	485
Batavia	372
Batanga I.	221
Batchian I.	406
Bate I.	152
Batoobara	365
Battaculla	167
Battanta I.	419
Batticolo	191
Battow I.	368
Batty Malve I.	325
Bayat	414
Bazaruto I.	24
Beacul	168
Beaupre I.	523
Bedout I.	452
Befdura	167
Bellura	166
Bela B.	30
Belicary	164
Belligan	188
Bellona I.	432
Bembatook R.	39
Bencoolen	342
Bender-Abassi	93
Bender Dodja	73
Bentot	189
Berar	207
Berbera	31
Berg R.	2
Bergen I.	364
Bernardino Strait	418
Berry Bellam R.	209
Berthollet R.	453
Betelfakie	77
Bhering's I.	268
Bhooj	162
Bilancetta	172
Billiapatam	170
Billiton I.	369
Biman B.	261
Bimlipatam	207
Bintang I.	368
Bird I.	30
Bird I.	62
Black R.	57
Blaize, St. B. and C.	17, 18
Blanco C.	420
Bloody R.	21
Bocca Tigris	256
Bocieos I.	24
Boelcomba	393
Bogatshua C.	84
Bolcheretsk	284
Bolchoyo-Reka R.	264
Bombay	158
Bompoka I.	325
Bonaparte I.	453
Boni G.	393
Bonoa I.	403
Boothias	393
Borbera	31
Borda C.	433
Borneo I.	365
Borneo Town	367
Botany Bay	445
Botherem B.	73
Botol Tobago I.	392
Boudouse I.	61
Bougainville Strait	420
Bougainville I.	423
Bounty I.	532
Bourbon I.	46
Bourbon Port	56
Bouro I.	397
Bouscle Channel	340
Bouton I. B. Bengal	227

Digitized by Google

	Page
Bouton I. Celebes..	294
Bowen I.....	390
Bowen Port	445
Brak R.....	17
Bromawara	167
Bras, St. B.....	17
Brasse I.....	362
Brave.....	29
Brede B.....	17
Bridgewater R....	448
Britain, New I.....	424
Bristol I.....	532
Broad Sound.....	444
Broken I.....	221
Broken B.....	445
Brothers, Two I...	32
Brothers, Three I.	64
Bucker Bunder	98
Buggess B.....	393
Buglas I.....	415
Buikang.....	245
Burdistan C.....	94
Burka.....	87
Burnt I.....	30
Burrampooter R..	216
Busching I.....	454
Busheab I.....	95
Bushire.....	94
Bussora.....	92
Byron I. and Strait C.	426
Cajeli.....	397
Calamianes I.....	416
Calaat el Maillah..	78
Calaat el Akaba....	79
Calantan R.....	235
Calcutta.....	213
Caledonia, New....	521
Calicut.....	171
Calingapatan.....	207
Calmea C.....	73
Calpentyn I.....	190
Caltura	189
Calymere Point....	199
Camaran I.....	77
Camaraigne B.....	244
Cambay..... 153,	154
Cambing I.....	384
Cambir de Terre I..	245
Cambodia 238,	239
Cambyna I.....	394
Camfida	77
Camorta I.....	325
Camton's B.....	19
Canare R.....	153
Candy.....	187
Cangoxsima I.....	303
Cannanore.....	170
Canton.....	256
Canton I.....	246
Cape Town.....	5
Capella I.....	404
Capricorn C.....	445
Caracka I.....	404
Caranjar I.....	160
Cardiva Channel ..	178
Cargados Reef	59
Caria Canim G. ...	84
Carimata I.... 369,	391
Carmaguda I.....	164
Carnicobar I.....	325
Carnot I.....	453
Carpentaria G.....	453
Cartaret Harbour..	425
Cartaret I.....	432
Carwar.....	164
Castries B.....	270
Catastrophe C.....	449
Catherine's, St. B..	18
Catwick I.....	241
Cavai.....	169
Cayery B.....	200
Caverypatam	200
Cavita	411
Cawoor	362
Caygayan Sooloo ..	390
Cebu I.....	415
Ceceir de Terre I..	241
Ceceir de Mer I...	241
Celebes I.....	391
Ceram I	397
Ceram Laut.....	403
Cerowa I.....	384
Chagos Bank	3
Chalambaram Pagoda	200
Cham-Collao I.	246
Chandernagore	215
Chandragiri	168
Chansely C.....	85
Chan-tcheun-cham I.	252
Chaos I.....	20
Chapmen B.....	14
Chapra	163
Chatham I.....	532
Cheduba I.....	221
Chepauk.....	205
Cherbarneang Bank	176
Cheribon	375
Chesterfield Shoal..	43
Chewabad	97
Chicacole	207
Chicatan I.....	310
Chilau.....	190
Chilka Lake	208
Chin-chew.....	259
Chin-chin B.....	245
Chinsura.....	215
Chiracole.....	163
Chittigong	217
Chitwa	173
Choiseul Port, Madagascar.....	42

Digitized by Google

Page

Choiseul Port, Solomon's Islands .. 428
Choul 160
Choultry Plain 205
Chowghaut..... 173
Chowry 325
Christian, St. R.... 21
Christopher, St. R.. 21
Christopher, St. I.. 43
Christoval, San. I.. 429
Christmas I..... 65
Chulawan I..... 24
Churbar..... 97
Chusan I..... 259
Clerke's I. 289
Cloates I..... 455
Cocanara I..... 207
Cochin 173
Cocos I., Indian Sea 65
Cocos I., B. Bengal 317
Cocos I., Sumatra.. 363
Coetivy I..... 62
Coffin I. 43
Cogal 188
Coin de Mire..... 57
Coloaray I..... 246
Colebroke Rock.... 14
Coleron R..... 200
Colombo..... 189
Commodo C..... 381
Comorin C..... 174
Comoro I. 43
Company's Land .. 310
Concao 238
Concordia 383
Condore I..... 240
Content B..... 19
Cook's Strait..... 524
Cooper's I..... 56
Copper I..... 289
Corea 268

Page

Corientes C..... 23
Coringa 207
Correga 418
Cosmoleda I..... 60
Cossire 74
Cottah 171
Cottapatam 199
Coulaba I. 160
Coumong Port 245
Coupang 383
Covelong 202
Cracatoa 379
Cranganore 173
Cranmer's B..... 259
Crocodile I..... 453
Cronotskoi C..... 286
Crooe 362
Crotchey 150
Crysorant R. 233
Cuamo R. 24
Cuddalore 201
Culpee 212
Cumbrian's Reef .. 292
Cumby 168
Cundapore..... 167
Curieuse I..... 62
Curia Muria G.... 85
Curtis Port..... 445
Cutch G. 151
Cuttack R..... 208

D.

Dagelet I..... 269
Dalrymple Port.... 420
Damma I..... 384
Dampier Passage... 420
Danger I..... 64
Dassen I..... 2
Dauphin, Fort 40
David, St. Fort.... 201
David's, St. I..... 424
Deceitful I..... 364

Page

Delgado C... 19, 27, 30
Delly 383
Demaun..... 157
Denis I..... 62
Denis, St. 51
Dennis C..... 77
Depuch I..... 452
Derwent R..... 457
Deseada C..... 1
Devicotta 200
Dewghur I..... 162
Dhalak I..... 80
Diamond I..... 222
Diamond Point.... 365
Diamond Harbour.. 212
Diego Garcia I..... 63
Difficult B..... 453
Dilla Mount 168
Ding Ding I. 232
Diu..... 153
Divellan..... 205
Divy Point..... 206
Djobee I..... 421
Dofar 85
Domea 249
Dommel I..... 225
Dondra Head..... 188
Dong-Kin 248
Dooharab I..... 82
Dory Harbour..... 422
Dryon Strait and I. 368
Duncan's Passage .. 322
Dupuy C..... 452
Durac..... 91
Duraspatam 205
Durga..... 84
Dusky B..... 532

E.

Eagle I..... 61, 64
East Cape Madag... 42
Edgecumbe, I..... 517

Digitized by Google

	Page
Bbe Harbour	419
Egmont I., Ind. Sea	64
Egmont I., Pacific Ocean	818
Egmont, Mount	834
Eight Degree Channel	176
Ejmaum	90
Ekarma I.	311
Ekeberg Point	19
Elephant I.	22
Elephant R.	1
Elephanta I.	160
Elizabeth I.	2
Ellore	171
Emerald Mount	74
Endeavour R.	444
Ende I.	381
Engano I.	368
Engano C.	410
English R.	22
English Company's	454
Entore	205
Entremango I.	509
Entonan I.	391
Erin R.	466
Espiritu-Santo I.	518
Espiritu Santo B.	22
Estrums-Kasan I.	321
Esorpa I.	319
Estermo	319
Euphrates R.	89
Europe Point	43
F.	
Fal-Foe	246
Fare I.	420
Falce B. and C.	14
Farsash C.	86
Fatsisio I.	303
Felicite I.	62
Felix Mount	30
Fernandez Veloso R.	26
Fiogo	302
Fire I.	23
Fish R.	21
Fisher's R.	22
Fisher's I.	245
Flat I.	57
Flattery C.	444
Flesh B.	17
Flores I. and Strait	381
Fogoe, Rio	28
Fok-si-foo	259
Formosa I.	290
Formosa B.	28
Forrestier I.	432
Fortified I.	166
Fortune Shoal	63
Foul Point	41
Foul Bay	74
Four Islands	432
France, I. of	53
Francis, St. I.	62
Francis, St. B.	19
Freewill I.	424
French R.	23
Frigate I.	62
Fulta	212
Furneaux I.	455
G.	
Gallegs I.	59
Galliot I.	379
Gangawalli R.	164
Ganges R.	209
Ganjam	207
Gantheaume I.	452
Gasima	301
Gaspar Strait	369
Gava R.	301
Gebel Macour I.	74
Gebel Tar I.	82
Gebel Zegher I.	81
Gebel Zetayr I.	82
Geby I.	419
Geelwink B.	421
Geographe B.	451
Geographe Bank	452
George, St. Fort	203
George R.	446
George, St. Channel	425
George III. King Sound	450
Ghauts Mount	156
Gheriah	161
Ghezan	77
Gigil	380
Gilolo I.	405
Glasshouse B.	445
Goa	163
Gôapnaut Pagoda	154
Godavery R.	266
Gogo	154
Golden Mount	226
Golden Downs R.	22
Gombroon	93
Gondegam	205
Good Hope C., Africa	3
Good Hope C., New Guinea	420
Good Fortune I.	364
Goonong Api I., Banda	404
Goonong Api, Sunda	381
Goonong Tella B.	393
Goram I.	403
Gotto I.	303
Gouritz	17
Gower Harbour	425
Gower I.	432
Grafton I.	414
Grain	91
Grassec	377
Green R.	1
Groot I.	454

Digitized by Google

	Page
Guadel C.	92
Gudal Canal I.	429
Guakarna	165
Guardafui C.	30
Guinea, New	420
Guttar R.	98
H.	
Hacking, Port	446
Hai-Hong	259
Hainan I.	250
Halamahara I.	405
Hanglip	14
Hanover, New I.	426
Hansan B.	246
Hantcheau	260
Haranca I.	403
Hardy, Sir Charles I.	427
Harlem B.	259
Hasso-beta	168
Hasso-durga	168
Hastings Port	225
Hawkes B.	534
Hawkesbury R. 434,	446
Hean	249
Helena, St. B.	1
Henery I.	160
Henry C.	389
Hermits I.	427
Hervey B.	445
Hirtitty	167
Hoan-ho	261
Hoanza R.	31
Hobart	457
Hodeida	77
Ho-chew I.	253
Hog I.	166
Hog I. Sumatra	363
Honecohe	245
Hong-chang-foo	255
Honimoa I.	403
Hoogly R.	211
Hoogly Town	215
Hout B.	13
Houtman's Abrolhos	451
Howe, C.	446
Howe's, Lord I.	432
Howe's, Lord L.	458
Howe's, Lord I.	517
Hue	247
Hullady-pura	165
Hunnam	249
Hunter Port	445
Hunter Isles	432
Hunter's Isle	455
Hunter's I.	521
Huygens, C.	452
Hy Vondron	41
I.	
Ibrahim, C.	77
Ibrahim R.	93
Ikurma I.	311
Ilpinskoi C.	285
Illano B.	417
Indian B.	428
Indragiri	366
Indus R.	150
Infanta, C.	17
Infanta R.	21
Ingellee	209
Ingeram	207
Ingiga G.	277
Inhamban R.	23
Inhampura R.	23
Inhanceto I.	24
Inlets, B. of,	444
Inyacke Point	22
Irabatty R.	222
Irawaddy R.	222
Ireland, New,	425
Irkan R.	365
Isabella I.	429
Islamabad	217
Islands, B. of	534
Isolette C.	85
Israel C.	79
Itchil R.	284
Itchinskoi	284
J.	
Jacatra	372
Jackee I.	394
Jackson, Port	442
Jaffnepatam	191
Jafferabad	152
Jagernaut Pagoda	288
Jagernautporam	287
Jambee	368
James, St. C.	240
Jangeylan I.	226
Japan I.	294
Japanese R.	239
Japara	376
Jarra I.	232
Jasques C.	93
Jasques R.	97
Java I.	369
Java Head	378
Javanna	376
Jeddo	391
Jehan C.	80
Jervis B.	446
Jesso	304
Jigat Point	153
John, St. R.	21
John, St. I.	80
John, St. C.	157
John's, St. I.	497
Johore R.	293
Juan de Nova L.	43
Juan de Nova I.	60
Juanico, St. Strait	415
Jube	28
Judda	77
Junbazeer R.	155

Digitized by Google

	Page
Junkseylon R.	226
Juthia	236
Jutten I.	2
K.	
Kalitore	205
Kalpeni I.	176
Kamtschatka	279
Kamtschatka R.	286
Kanak R.	207
Kangaroo I.	448
Kangelong I.	380
Kanyapura	168
Karaya I.	285
Karek I.	95
Karical	199
Katchall I.	326
Katif, El	91
Kawna	301
Kaze I.	95
Keun-cheun-mee I.	251
Kedjeree	212
Keeling's I.	65
Kega Point	240
Keirboom R.	19
Keish I.	95
Keiskamma R.	21
Kekow	260
Kelang I.	402
Kemar	394
Kenery I.	160
Keppel B.	445
Keppel I.	517
Kessing I.	403
Ketay I.	311
Keyto I.	311
Keys I.	384
Keyser B.	367
Kiam I.	28
King I.	455
Kisansen	262
Kismiah I.	95
Kisseen	84
Kistna R.	206
Kistnapatam	205
Kiun-tcheun	251
Kiusiu I.	302
Klein R.	15
Knobflore I.	95
Knysna	18
Kokura I.	303
Kolsum	75
Komol C.	74
Kongon	93
Kosima R.	309
Koueit	91
Kromme R.	19
Kunashir I.	310
Kurassy I.	311
Kuriat C.	86
Kurilee I.	310
Kuttubdea I.	217
Kyen I.	95
L.	
Laccadiva I.	175
Lacepede I.	453
Ladda I.	227
Ladrone I.	253
Lagoa R.	23
Lagullas C.	15
Lahoo	399
Lahsa	91
Lamay I.	291
Lammas Mount	429
Lampoon B.	367
Lancavy I.	227
Lantao I.	253
Larak I.	95
Larantouca	382
Larg I.	364
Laribundar	151
Laroot R.	232
Latta-Latta I.	406
Launceston	457
Laurence, St. I., India Sea	60
Laurence, St. I, Behring's Basin	289
Laurence, St. B.	288
Lauriston Port	524
Ledang Mount	233
Leetee I.	284
Leeuwin C.	451
Lema I.	253
Leongsoy	251
Leotong G.	269
Lepers I.	519
Leu, St.	52
Leyte I.	415
Lieu-Kieu I.	292
Likeo I.	303
Limmens Bight	554
Limpo	260
Lincoln, Port	449
Lindy R.	27
Lintin I.	253
Lissamatula I.	394
Loheia	77
Lombatta I.	382
Lombock	380
Lookout Point	445
Lopatka C.	279
Lorenzo Marques B.	22
Louis, Port	56
Louisiade I.	427
Louise I.	61
Louquez Port	42
Low I.	427
Lowang I.	260
Loyalty I.	523
Luce, St. B.	40
Lucie, St. R.	22
Lucipera I.	369
Lucky B.	450

Digitized by Google

Luconia I..... 409

M.

Macaloe B..... 26
Macao 253
Macayo 29
Macassar..... 393
Macclesfield Shoal.. 540
Macluer G..... 421
Mactan I..... 415
Maculla B..... 84
Madagascar 33
Madjicosemah I.... 292
Madras 203
Mafamale I..... 25
Mafuma River 23
Magadoxa I..... 29
Magnetic I..... 444
Mahabaliporam 202
Mahamady R..... 208
Mahé 170
Mahé I..... 62
Mahi R..... 154
Mahomet C..... 78
Maidenoi I..... 289
Maken I..... 311
Makien I..... 406
Marlborough, Fort.. 362
Malacca 232
Maldiva I..... 177
Male I..... 179
Malgasen I..... 2
Malheureux C..... 57
Mallicola I..... 518
Malouet C..... 452
Malwan I..... 162
Mamal Channel.... 176
Mamet I..... 15
Mamout 15
Manado 394
Manapuram I..... 173
Manar G..... 181
Manar I..... 191
Mandelique I..... 376
Mandoly I..... 406
Mangalore 167
Mangarole 152
Mangeray I..... 381
Mangola I..... 394
Manigara I..... 39
Manicoy I..... 176
Manikapatam..... 207
Manilla 410
Manippe I..... 402
Manjeswara..... 168
Manna 362
Manooro R..... 40
Manslaer I..... 363
Mantoa R..... 163
Mapoota R..... 23
Marcus, St. R..... 23
Marcus, St. I..... 2
Mareekan..... 310
Marianne I..... 62
Marie, Ste..... 53
Marmotte I..... 2
Marmagan 163
Martaban 222
Martin, St. C..... 1
Mary, St. C., Madagascar..... 42
Mary, St. C., N. Ireland..... 427
Mary, St. I., E.C. Africa..... 22
Mary, St. I., Madagascar..... 41
Mary, St. Rocks.... 167
Mascall I..... 217
Maskelyne I..... 520
Masselliege..... 39
Massowah 72
Masulapatam..... 206
Mathew, St. I..... 225
Mathew's I..... 521
Matsiam R..... 239
Matsimay 309
Matura 188
Mayhim 152
Mayil I..... 311
Mayotta 45
Mazeira I..... 85
Megna R..... 216
Mego I..... 364
Mehran R..... 151
Mehun I..... 80
Meinam R..... 236
Mekram..... 97
Melinda 28
Melundy..... 162
Mergui I..... 234
Merjee 165
Meroe I..... 326
Metshigmena B.... 288
Meykong R..... 239
Miaco..... 301
Miatau I..... 262
Middleton I..... 458
Mina 93
Mindanao I..... 416
Mindora..... 414
Mintao I..... 363
Mirza Sheik Baroud 73
Misamis 418
Missiessy C..... 452
Moa I., Sunda 384
Moa I., N. Guinea.. 421
Mocambo R..... 25
Mocha 75
Moco-Moco 361
Mohanza C..... 150
Mohilla I..... 45
Molky Rocks 167
Molucca I..... 395

Digitized by Google

	Page
Molyneux Port	532
Mombaze	28
Momparva	387
Monfia	28
Mongallon R.	27
Monmouth I.	414
Montegu Port	425
Monteval C.	85
Monze C.	150
Moochadeu B.	44
Moolivaram Pagoda	202
Mootapilly	206
Morebat	85
Morigambo	40
Mornington Port	73
Morro Cobir	30
Mortay I.	406
Morundava B.	39
Mosambique	25
Mossel B.	17
Motir	406
Motua I.	311
Mountain C.	19
Muddi	152
Muliwaddy R.	189
Murat C.	452
Murodeswara	166
Muru	302
Musseldom C.	87
Mutmul	170
Mutova I.	311
Mya I.	405
Mysol	419

N.

Nabajou I.	95
Naff R. (Note)	220
Nagore	199
Nakowai	285
Nambu	301
Nancowry I.	326
Nancy	362
Nangasaki	302
Nankin	261
Nantian	363
Napakian	293
Narcondam I.	322
Narsepore	206
Nassau I.	364
Natal Point	21
Natal C.	361
Natuna I.	391
Nazareth Bank	59
Neas I.	363
Neelganga R.	188
Negapatam	199
Negrais C. and I.	222
Negro B.	30
Negros I.	415
Negumbo	190
Neptune I.	449
Nerbudda R.	155
Niakina	285
Nila Baber I.	384
Nicobar I.	322
Nicobar, Great	326
Nihatrang B.	244
Nine Degree Channel	176
Nine Islands	431
Ningpo	260
Niphon	301
Nizamapatam	206
Noahs Ark Rock	15
Noeufs I.	61
Noosalaut I.	403
Noosa Nessing I.	384
Norfolk I.	458
North Cape, New Zealand	531
Nosé C.	74
Noselikam	90
Nesselbe	41
Novi Bunder	152
Nowa Bunder	153
Now Chow I.	252
Nuyts I.	449

O.

Oby I., China Sea	238
Oby I., Moluccas	405
Odowarra	301
Offak	420
Oki I.	303
Okosaki	301
Okota R.	274
Okotsk	275
Old Woman's I.	159
Oluthora R.	287
Oma I.	403
Ombay I.	382
Ongro	245
Onore	165
Onrust	375
Ophir Mount, Malay	233
Orange I.	414
Orfui C.	30
Orixa I.	62
Ormus I.	94
Osacca	301
Osima I.	309
Ouchen	252
Oukinskoi	285
Oyster Rocks	164

P.

Pada-Kassam	379
Padang	361
Padaran C.	240
Pagoda Point	222
Pahang	235
Pakamboru	365
Palappa	415
Palawan I.	416
Palembang	366
Palmyra Point	208
Pambeelong I.	235

Digitized by Google

	Page
Panaroukan	377
Panay I.	415
Pangasani I.	394
Paniany	172
Panjang I.	226
Panka Point	377
Pantare I.	382
Panture	189
Paoom I.	519
Papra	226
Paracels	540
Paragoa I.	416
Paramatta	444
Parupanada	172
Passandava	40
Passig R.	411
Passir	387
Passowarang	378
Patany C.	236
Patchow I.	292
Patience G.	273
Patte I.	28
Paul, St.	52
Pecheli G.	262
Pedir	365
Pedro Branco Strait, Sincapore	234
Pedro Branco, China Sea	259
Pegu	222, 223
Pehoe I.	292
Peiko R.	262
Pe-Kiang R.	256
Pekin	262
Pelangy R.	417
Pellew, Sir Edward I.	454
Pemba B.	26
Pemba I.	28
Penantipodes I.	532
Pengina G	279
Penguin I.	3
Pera I.	227
Perim I.	80
Permira Rocks	167
Peron Peninsula	452
Peros Banhos I.	64
Persaim R.	222
Persian Gulf	88
Petapilly	206
Peter, St. C.	30
Peter, St. I., Bourbon	52
Peter, St. and St. Paul	285
Pharang B.	244
Philip, St. and St. James B.	518
Philippines I.	407
Philip, Port.	447
Phyen Harbour	245
Piapis	410
Pic d'Etoile I.	519
Pico Pagos.	26
Pierre, St. I.	61
Pigeon I.	166
Pigeon House I.	57
Pinang I.	228
Pinda R.	25
Pines I.	523
Pinghay	259
Pingnanie	26
Pipley	209
Pisang I., Sumatra	235
Pisang I., Molucca	404
Piscadores I.	292
Pitt I.	432
Pitt Passage	419
Plenty B.	531
Plettenberg B.	18
Ploughman's I.	260
Poggy I.	364
Poliore I.	95
Point de Galle	188
Poivre C.	452
Pondicherry	201
Pondy I.	379
Ponghu	292
Ponthemas	236
Pontiana	387
Poondy	207
Poor Bunder	152
Pootoo I.	262
Popo I.	419
Porca	173
Poromuschir I.	311
Porpoise Reef	523
Portland I.	426
Porto Nova	200
Poverty B.	521
Praslin I.	62
Praslin Port	425
Praslin Fort	429
Pratas Shoal	540
Preparis I.	317
Priaman	361
Prince's I.	378
Prince of Wales' I.	228
Providence I.	61
Prunes I.	41
Pry R.	228
Pulicat	205
Pulo B.	393
Pungalootay	168
Purmrent I.	375
Putten	152

Q.

Qualla Batrong	227
Qualla Moorba	228
Queda	227
Queen Charlotte I.	513
Queen Charlotte Sound	531
Quelpaert I.	268

Digitized by Google

	Page
Querimba I.	26
Quezungo R.	25
Quilliffe	28
Quillimany R.	24
Quiloa	27
Quilon	173
Quinhone	245
Quisimajugo R.	26
Quoin I.	325
R.	
Rah	450
Rajapore	153
Rajapour	161
Rajapour I.	161
Rakan R.	365
Rakoa	311
Rakowoi	286
Ramas C.	164
Ramen Point	174
Ramisseram I.	174
Ramree	221
Ran R.	151
Rangan	369
Rangoon	223
Raree	163
Ras Aboo Mahomet C.	78
Ras el Ans	74
Ras el Giddid C.	73
Ras Badasad	86
Ras al Khal C.	85
Ras Firmah C.	72
Ras Rattah C.	72
Ras el Kima	91
Rasbel C.	31
Raschoea I.	311
Ratan I.	414
Recif C.	20
Red Sea	67
Redang I.	235
Reerveer R.	422
Reeshire	94
Refussiri	309
Rembang	370
Resolution Port.	520
Rhuliere C.	453
Richmond I.	414
Riosiri I.	309
Robbenberg Point.	19
Rockake I.	311
Rockbo R.	249
Roderigue I.	58
Rodney C.	420
Rogues R.	29
Roman Rocks	15
Romania Point.	234
Ron I.	404
Ronde I.	362
Rosalgat C.	85
Rose, St.	53
Rosemary I.	452
Rosingen I.	404
Rotten I.	381
Rottenest I.	451
Rotti I.	384
Round I.	57
S.	
Sabedyna I.	32
Sabugar I.	82
Sacrifice I.	171
Sadras	202
Sagalin I.	271
Sagalin-Ula R.	271
Sagor I.	212
Saigong	239
Saiaka	73
Salamet I.	95
Salangore	232
Saldanah B.	362
Sallibobo I.	407
Saloomah	362
Salsett R.	164
Salsette I.	158
Samak I.	96
Samanap	379
Samar I.	415
Samarang	376
Sambas	387
Sambelong I.	232
Samboangan	417
Sampan	379
Sanciam I.	252
Sandalwood I.	382
Sandana C.	378
Sandy I	59, 65
Sandy Cape	445
Sangir I.	395
Sandwich I.	520
Sangkoi R.	246
Santa Cruz I.	517
Saparoue I.	43
Sapata I.	241
Sapy Strait	381
Satang I.	414
Savannah	57
Savu I.	384
Sawa	399
Saya de Malha	59
Scarborough Shoal.	540
Schiash-Kutan I.	311
Schioutskey I.	311
Schirinki I.	311
Schouten I.	421
Sea Cows I.	62
Seal I.	15
Seal C.	19
Scarbelt I.	153
Seassee I.	391
Sebastian, St. B.	17
Sebastian, St. C.	23
Se Booroo I.	364
Sedasivaghur	164
Seer	91
Selangan	417

Digitized by Google

	Page
Seleyer I.	304
Semao I.	384
Sena	25
Se Pora I.	364
Serampore	214
Serbite I.	382
Serpent I.	57
Seuhelipar I.	76
Severndroog	161
Seychelles I.	61
Shadwan I.	79, 80
Shahar	84
Shaloopootien I.	262
Shark's I.	432
Shantung prom.	263
Shark's B.	451
Shat-al-Arab R.	90
Shefean I.	23
Shepherd's I.	520
Sherwin	84
Shirally	166
Shoal Haven	446
Shoalwaterbay	444
Shoomska I.	311
Siak R.	365
Siam G.	236
Siao I.	395
Sidayo	377
Sikokf I	302
Silhouette I.	62
Simbon I.	429
Simon's B.	14
Simon's Town	15
Simpson's I.	432
Sincapore Strait	234
Sindal Chan.	176
Sinde I.	289
Sinkel	361
Sinnacapa R.	26
Sirius I.	432
Sisters, *Three*	62
Sitang R.	223
Six Islands	64
Smith's I.	432
Smoaky C.	22
Snar's I.	532
Societyhouse B.	13
Socotra I.	31
Sofala	24
Solomon's I.	65
Solomon's I. (Papua)	428
Solor I.	382
Sommeany	98
Sonaka-Guda I.	164
Songa	303
Songomaney	98
Sooloo I.	390
Soor	86
Soorlkarta	371
Soorootoo I.	391
Soosoo	360
Souillac	57
Spencer's Gulf	448
Speult R.	453
Stephen's Port	445
Stewart's I.	432
Storm Bay	457
Strogonoff G.	309
Struy's Bay	17
Suakin	73
Succadana	387
Suez Gulf	79
Suez Town	75
Suffrein B.	270
Sumatra I.	328
Sumbawa I.	381
Sunda Strait	369
Sunday R.	20
Sundeep I.	217
Sunderbunds	210, 215
Surabaya	377
Surat	155
St. Susannah	53
Swallow I.	517
Swan R.	451
Swangy I.	405
Syas I.	311
Syrian R.	223
T.	
Ta Gulf	252, 256
Table B.	3
Tagal	376
Taiwan	291
Taliabo I.	394
Talhado C.	18
Tamar R.	456
Tamarida	31
Tamatave	41
Tam-koom-tow I.	253
Tanasserim	224
Tanaa Sima	303
Tangalle	191
Tanjong Sampan-mangio	389
Tanna I.	520
Tantcheau	251
Tappemandy R.	26
Tappanooly R.	361
Tappool I.	391
Taptee R.	155
Tariholay R.	166
Tarjinskoi	285
Tatta	151
Tauskoï Gulf	277
Tavay	224
Taypinshan I.	292
Tchiang R.	260
Tchukotskoï C.	283
Tellisamoy	365
Tellicherry	170
Tench's I.	427
Tenchoo	262
Tengaypatam	174

Digitized by Google

	Page		Page		Page
Teressa I.	325	Tryal Rocks	455	Volcano B.	309
Ternate I.	407	Tsung-ming I.	261	Volcano I.	517
Ternay B.	270	Tsuss	303	De Vrie's Strait	310
Terrapore Peak	157	Turon B.	246	Vung-Tcheau	245
St. Thadeus C.	288	Tutacorin	174	Wakoo	399
Thaluyan R.	223	Twofold Bay	446	Walpole I.	521
Thieves R.	23	Two Hills I.	520	Walsh C.	421
St. Thome	202	Tyfoa I.	405	Way I., Sumatra	362
Three Anchor Bay	13	Tymanshan I.	253	Way I., Molucca	404
Ticou Peak	240	Tyoe I.	253	Waygioo I.	419
Tidor It.	406	Typa	256	Waywongy I.	394
Tien-Pak.	252	Uda R.	274	Wellensly I.	454
Tien-Pe-Kiang	252	Udipa	167	Wessels I.	454
Tigil	284	Ufusima I.	303	Western Port	447
Tigris R.	89	Ulala	168	Wetter I.	384
Tillanchong I.	325	Ulkan R.	274	Whey	247
Tillanchool I.	326	Underoot I.	176	White I.	31
Timan	384	Unhaca Point	22	Whittle Rock	14
Timoan I.	234	Urak R.	274	Whit-Sunday I.	519
Timor I.	382	Urup I.	310	Fort William	213
Timor Laut I.	384	Vacas C.	17	William Henry I.	427
Tinghay	260	Vadacurry	170	Wilson's Promontory	446
Tingoran	235	Valentia I.	72	Xuan-Dai	245
Tingy I.	234	Valentine Peak	157	Xulla I.	394
Tinhosa I.	251	Van Diemen's Strait	203	Xulla Bessy I.	394
Tiran I.	78	Van Diemen's C.	453	Yamatoo R.	261
Tiz	97	Van Diemen's B.	453	Yambo	87
Tomini G.	393	Van Diemen's Land	455	Yamsk	277
Tondy	199	Varella I. 232, 235,	365	Yang-tse-Kiang R.	261
Tonquin G.	248	Vela Reta Rock	292	Yannaon	207
Tor	79	Veniam	174	Yantcheau	257
Tranquebar	200	Versavah	157	Yellow Sea	260
Tre I.	245	Victory Fort	161	York C.	433
Treasury I.	429	Victoria Fort	402	York Peninsula	448
Trident Rock	14	Villaret C.	452	York's I. *Duke of*	426
Trieste I.	364	St. Vincent G.	448	Zare I.	91
Trincomalee	192	St. Vincent Port	522	Zyghur	161
Trincutti I.	326	Vingorla Rocks	162		
Tringano	235	Vizagapatam	207		

END OF VOL. III.

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ERRATA.

Page	Line	
23,	9,	*from bottom*, river is *read* river are.
33,	3,	——— give *read* giving.
39,	10,	——— a European *read* an European.
62,	penult,	St. Trouis *read* St. Francis.
63,	13,	*dele* broad.
65,	1,	is *read* are.
78,	ante-penult,	Calai el Moatla *read* Calaat el Moillah.
94,	5,	fort *read* port.
147,	4,	into branches *read* into two branches.
130,	20,	is *read* are.
193,	ante-penult and penult,	*for* are *read* is.
213,	13,	1,000 men *read* 100,000.
223,	7,	RANGOOR *read* RANGOON.
224,	3,	on the *read* in the.
235,	penult,	Reding *read* Redang.
270,	3,	those *read* that.
273,	3,	*from bottom*, Anicoa *read* Aniva.
289,	8,	Clarke *read* Clerke.
313,	5,	present *read* presenting.
314,	13,	New Zealand *read* Van Diemen's Land.
316,	ante-penult,	every tribe *read* each tribe.
——	penult,	each other *read* every other.
336,	18,	Sumatra *read* Sumatran.
337,	18,	Parroquets *read* Perroquets.
341,	10,	*from bottom*, improvements *read* improvement.
406,	10,	——— Latta Satia *read* Latta-Laita.
416,	9,	——— Palruan *read* Palawan.
425,	4,	——— Borringtonia *read* Barringtonia.
444,	8,	found *read* formed.
498,	18,	renders *read* render
505,	14,	comprodor *read* comprador.

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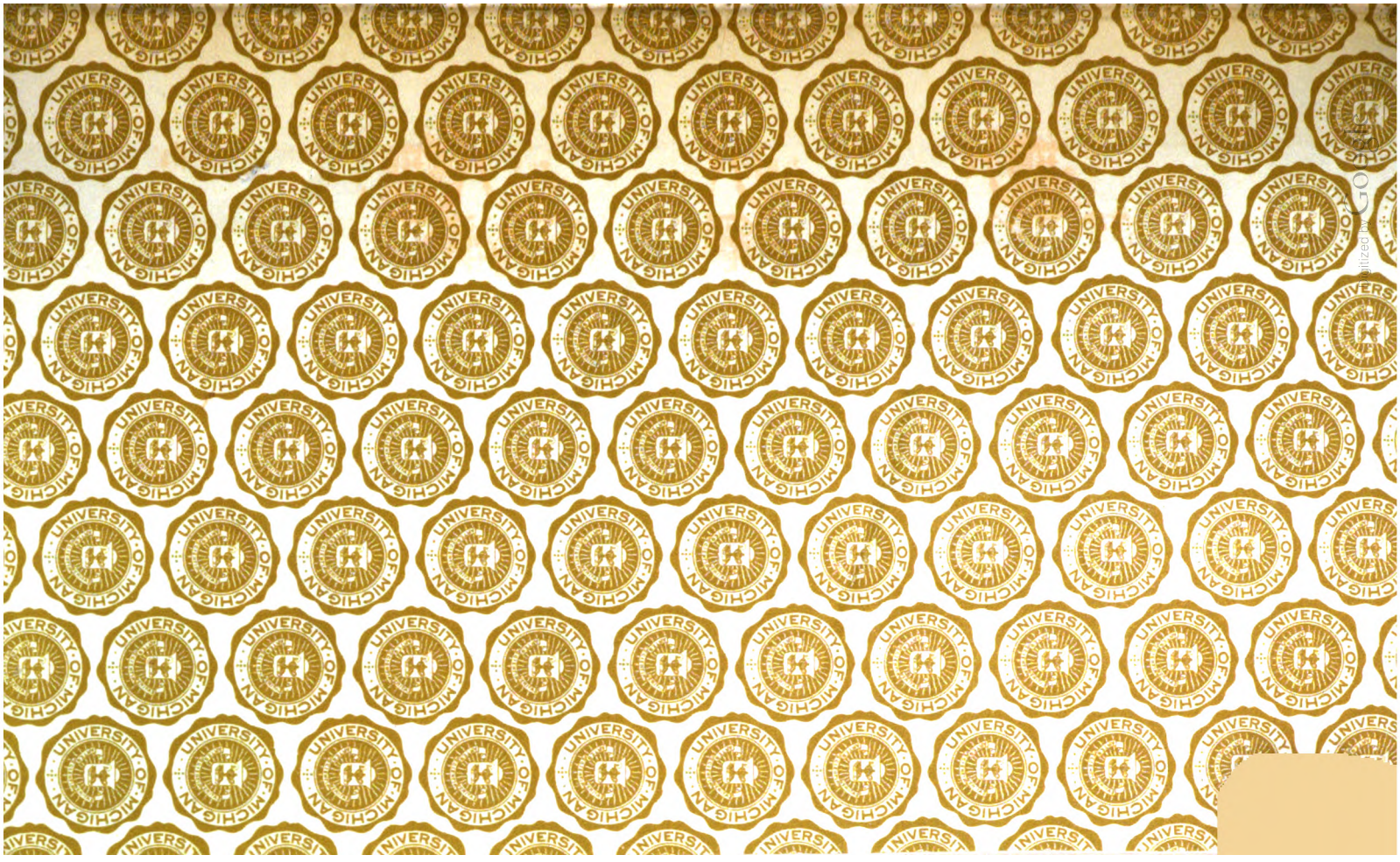
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